

# THE CHARITIES REVIEW

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## Organized Charity at Work.

The REVIEW has for the past two years, under the heading "organized charity at work," reviewed the annual reports of several of the larger and representative societies which are engaged in the organization of private charity, or in the systematic relief of the poor in their homes, or in both tasks at once. There are fourteen such representative reports now before us, all of which the writer has examined with care. Two are in manuscript, one in the form of a newspaper report of an annual meeting, the others in printed pamphlets varying in size from four to 180 pages.

Geographically, the societies represented by these reports are distributed from New England to the Pacific coast; and the cities vary in size from 28,000 upwards. Six different official designations are employed, and there are at least six radically distinct types of organization; although the aims of all are practically common.

The impression made upon the reviewer by these diverse publications is one of vitality and earnest conviction. There are, to be sure, some

conventional phrases, some indications of routine, some petty scoldings, possibly even some attempts to make a favorable showing on doubtful data. These faults are, however, remarkably scarce. As a rule, the reports, whether brief or voluminous, indicate actual work done, serious realization of actual needs, practical weighing of methods old and new, a readiness to strike out into unexplored fields, but also a faithful adherence to principles which have been tried and approved.

## St. Paul.

Returning to her duties after an absence of several weeks, the superintendent of friendly visiting of the St. Paul associated charities records as follows certain definite results of the relations established between the visitors and the families:

I see the acquaintance begun with hesitancy and misgivings on the part of the visitor, and with questioning and misunderstanding on the part of the visited, ripened into one of confidence, trustfulness, and hopefulness. I see the children and young people of these poor homes slowly becoming accustomed to the welcome offered them in the homes of their new-found friends, and in some

instances becoming frequent guests therein. I see them being taught useful industries. I see tired mothers turn with gratitude and words of praise to young women who cheer their homes and tenderly minister to their feeble offspring. I see the eyes of invalid mothers brighten when the cheerful friends make frequent calls. I see young women becoming companions to those who need an older sister's counsel and support. I see the heroic efforts of visitors who are trying to lift to the purer atmosphere of self-dependence those whose low standard of life accepts pauperism and beggary. I see earnest visitors carrying a real heart sorrow that as yet there is no outward evidence of better impulses in stubborn, intemperate, or wayward lives.

**Boston.** The directors of the associated charities of Boston say explicitly:

There is evidently no need of any new society to give material help to the poor in our liberal city, but there is every need of a more generous upholding of a society like our own, pledged to hold no funds for relief, and doing educational, preventive, curative work.

The precise nature of that work is stated anew in the following words:

To comfort and help the weak-hearted, to hold families together when possible, to help toward a safe separation when necessary, to lessen the dangerously increasing number of deserted wives, to induce heedless relatives to assume responsibilities, to place the growing boy where he can be wholesomely occupied, to give the girl a trade by which she can keep herself and help her people—these are some

of the objects our workers are aiming at.

Surely these are desirable objects, demanding patience, tact, faith, and knowledge. There is obviously nothing perfunctory, or negative, or mechanical about that statement, or in the methods of the workers who formulated it.

**Providence.** The Providence society for organizing charity, referring to a previous report for a statement of the necessity for a certain amount of administrative machinery, asserts that it is still true that "associations such as ours must depend for their vitality largely upon the development of the positive side of their work; that is, upon friendly visiting.

**Louisville.** In the brief report of the Louisville charity organization society there is a refreshing vigor and positiveness, to which, however, strict accuracy and a sense of proportion are in a few minor particulars sacrificed. There may perhaps be a "beggars' college" on Allen street in New York; but the argument for charity organization is not the extent of perfection of detail in the organization of beggars. As Alexander Johnson pointed out in his address at Toronto, in 1897, it is not united strength but aggregated weakness which is the characteristic of these dismal hosts. We must not regard the dependents as an organized army for us to fight, but as our weaker brothers and sisters, whose

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capacities are less, and whose opportunities are more restricted than ours. This report also, however, points out the great need for friendly visitors. What their work would be is sufficiently indicated in one sentence which incorporates Franklin's advice not to make the poor easy in poverty, but to lead or drive them out of it. It might have been better, however, instead of adding to this four declarations as to what charity is not, to place before the charitably disposed an affirmative platform showing what it is.

#### St. Louis.

In the report of the St. Louis provident association there is also, with much that is excellent, an instance of the dogmatism which sometimes gives offense. "It may be easily ascertained," says the president of that organization, "whether a house-to-house beggar is a professional tramp by the answer returned when offered one of our reference cards. If he or she remarks, 'O! it's no use to go there,' or 'They will not help me,' or 'They have no work,' or 'They have closed up their woodyard,' you may put it down that the applicant has either not applied, or is known at the association and that help or work is not given because the party applying is unworthy."

"We are always prepared to give work to single men for meals and lodgings, and to able-bodied men and women with families, that they may earn supplies for present necessities; and when such answers as the foregoing are returned, it may be taken for granted that the applicant

has been investigated or tested by us and is unworthy of the aid asked."

#### Denver.

Since some other western societies have adopted the consolidated financial system devised by the organized charities of Denver we are justified in referring again to the details of that plan:

This society received from the city of Denver an appropriation of \$9,000; various committees raised \$14,100, making a total revenue of \$23,100. This money is distributed in monthly installments to fifteen private societies of the city by the executive committee, meeting monthly in the central office, at which time reports are made by the societies receiving support. These societies include the hospitals, nurseries, missions, and special private charities. It is the understanding of the societies thus receiving money from the charity organization society that in return for this assistance they will not solicit of citizens who are contributors of the general fund. They may ask aid of others and may accept donations from friends of the institutions. However, abuses have arisen, causing the executive committee to pass a resolution, reading: "Believing that methods employed by individuals in raising money for charitable purposes threaten to discredit our institutions, be it resolved, that the various co-operating societies counsel with the executive committee before undertaking any plan to raise money."

After distributing money to the federated societies the central office had a fund remaining of \$4,800, which, added to the balance on hand, gave a total revenue of \$6,183.60. This sum was expended as follows: Groceries, shoes, fuel, meals, and

lodgings, \$2,086.90; salaries, \$1,560; transportation and care of sick, improvement of homes, loans, furniture, and stoves, employment fees, freight on household goods, plants and seeds for the vacant-lot cultivation, release of chattel mortgages, surgical appliances, carpentry tools, eye-glasses for a child, and office expenses not exceeding \$150.

The statistical tables show applications for relief, 5,329; relief given, 3,709; recurrent cases, 2,037; new cases, 1,671. Out of 341 applications for work, 223 were placed in employment. The central office refused assistance in 98 cases, referred 151 to co-operating societies, referred to the county 297, made 1,194 visits.

Mrs. I. George, the secretary, in her report lays stress upon the continued effort making to organize and co-ordinate the private charities of the city, so that no self-helpful person shall need other relief than work, and that no helpless one shall go for a single day unhelped. In speaking of the great demand for assistance from deserted wives, the secretary says: "We fear that no law would be a cure for the evil, and believe that the best remedy lies in the industrial advancement and acquired independence of women themselves. One-half of the applicants are women and children, many of whom are mere slaves to their sordid condition through the lack of this knowledge."

Other reports will be noted next month.

#### Baltimore Police Relief

The board of police commissioners of Baltimore has acceded to a request of the charity societies of the city that the entire responsibility for the care of

the needy of the city during the coming winter be left to these societies. It has been the custom in Baltimore for the police to distribute any funds placed in their hands for the relief of emergency distress, though they have of late years, if we mistake not, been increasingly inclined to turn over such work to private societies. The latter have in a severe test demonstrated their ability to do all that is necessary, and do it promptly. The present agreement, however, while giving the societies complete control of relief work, does not bind them should they find themselves unequal to the task.

#### About Relief Procuring.

We find in *Charities*, the official organ of the charity organization society of New York city, the following very interesting statement, which may afford some light on the distinction which believers in "charity organization principles" maintain between relief giving and relief procuring:

In the year ending June 30, 1900, the charity organization society obtained cash relief for families under its care amounting to \$17,479.91. This came chiefly from private individuals and was in all cases for specific needs which had been carefully investigated. This sum does not include the large amount of relief given directly to the destitute by churches, societies, and individuals at the request of the society. Whenever possible the society refers its applicants, either before or after investigation, to charitable agencies organized to meet the special need, whatever it may be,

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and gladly relinquishes to any suitable and responsible agency the entire responsibility of providing for any family which comes within the scope of that particular agency. The society does not include, in its statement of relief obtained as intermediary, the amounts given under such circumstances. There are many cases, however, which can not properly be adjusted in this way. Some of these are emergent and others chronic. In some instances relatives, employers, or others upon whom the applicants have recognized personal claim should be given the first opportunity to aid. All this was clearly foreseen when the society was organized nineteen years ago, and it was made the duty of the society by its charter and constitution to obtain relief in suitable cases from "charities and from charitable individuals."

Any who may have believed the charity organization society to be harsh in its requirements, or helpless in the presence of real distress, or unreasonable in placing burdens upon others, will do well to consider the significance of the amount of relief obtained by the society as intermediary in the past year—which has not been a year of exceptional distress. He should consider farther that in the woodyard, laundry, and workrooms of the society men and women who were in need, but were physically able-bodied, were given an opportunity to earn about \$13,000—which obviated the necessity for almost or quite an equal amount of charitable relief.

Preventive work is better than relief, but both are essential. Relief societies have their large and creditable place in the charitable system of the community, but there will always be gaps to be filled by individual contributions of money and service. It is one of the legitimate functions of the charity organi-

zation society as an investigating and relief-obtaining society to discover these gaps and to see that they are promptly and properly filled. We take this opportunity to express our appreciation of the individual responses to the appeals made on behalf of various individuals and families. Not a dollar of the funds thus contributed for relief has been used for administrative purposes. The entire amount is used exclusively for the relief of the particular persons for whom it was obtained, except in a few instances in which more was received than was needed. With the donor's consent, the surplus in such cases was transferred to some other similar case, for which an appeal would otherwise have been necessary.

**The Tramp Problem in Massachusetts.** On November 14 a meeting of the Massachusetts association of relief officers was held in Boston to consider the best methods of dealing with tramps and wayfarers. A committee of the association has made an exhaustive study of administrative practice in local dealings with tramps throughout the commonwealth. The report in full will be published in the *American Statistical Journal*. From the facts presented the committee summarizes the different lines of practice which have been adopted, under the following heads:

1. Towns which feed, shelter, and systematically work tramps. Among these, Boston, as is well known, established a wayfarers' lodge in 1879. Springfield adopted this plan in 1894, and reports the number of tramps as diminished from 15,000 to less than 1,500 in 1899. Lowell finds that tramps now avoid the town as much as possible. Palmer has reduced the number of appli-

cants from 2,500 to about 500. A number of other towns show a similar reduction effected by exacting work.

2. Towns which shelter and feed, or shelter only, but make a practice of taking before court on second or third application, or posting the vagrant law, or warning to leave town. Among these are Taunton, Fall River, and Worcester. These towns seem to have had less trouble than before the adoption of this policy.

3. Towns which try to discourage by indirect means, usually by not giving food or by placing the tramp house far from the centre of the town. Fitchburg says the plan of not feeding has reduced the number to one-half what it was when vagrants were fed. Yarmouth refers them to an almshouse six miles away. Hatfield provides a small building in the local cemetery—which is not popular.

4. Towns which refuse to accommodate except in stormy weather, or when applicants are sick or infirm. Groton found that it was feeding and lodging tramps to the number of from four hundred to six hundred a year. During the last year, under the present policy, some twelve or fifteen cases only were provided for, in sickness or during severe weather.

5. Towns which shelter, feed, and do not work or arrest except on serious charges. Under this heading are many of the larger communities and the majority of the smaller towns, especially in the western part of the state, where there are so few applicants that it appears a useless expense to make special provision.

The committee believes that the towns acting under the last mentioned plan actually encourage the tramp nuisance. It also questions whether the policy of turning the matter over to the police, as under

the second mentioned plan, is not less effective than what may be called the wayfarers' lodge policy, as illustrated by Boston and Springfield. For instance, Worcester, which provides police station lodgings, gives crackers, no work, and keeps expenses down to 1.4 cents apiece, has during the year one tramp to every nine inhabitants; while Boston, the natural magnet of vagrancy in the state, has one to twenty-five; Springfield one to thirty-five, and Lowell one to every forty-four inhabitants. This argument is, of course, not conclusive, but it may certainly be assumed that the economical municipal policy of Worcester leaves room for a larger drain on the back-door hospitality of its householders than is the case in cities where the tramp is adequately provided for. Tramps are bound to get their food and shelter somewhere. When work is demanded for the accommodations given, there is a fair presumption that these towns will be avoided. There is a further possibility that if such practice widened and spread through the state, vagrancy would be effectively discouraged and decreased.

At the meeting of the association this report was discussed by many of the active relief workers of the state and other persons directly interested in the question. Mr. William P. Fowler, of the overseers of the poor of Boston, called attention to the increasingly large proportion of men honestly looking for work who apply for a night's lodging. In Boston about sixty per cent of the whole number lodged in 1899 were, so far as could be learned by inquiry, really seeking employment. In subsequent discussion it was emphasized that the vagrant should be considered not as a nuisance, to be shaken off in the most convenient manner, but as a man, either

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genuinely in need of the shelter he seeks, or in equal need of a rigorous corrective treatment which is not possible without careful individual inquiry. Mr. Jacob A. Riis, in a communication to the association, reasserted his well-known opinion, based on the most practical kind of experience, that the policy of lodging tramps and wayfarers in police stations is a great wrong alike to the commonwealth and the one it assumes so to shelter. Mr. Riis added that, while he was not sure that a work-test is universally practicable, "inquiry fills the bill. Anything does that takes notice of the tramp with the purpose not to let him go tramping any longer. Work and investigation are the wicket-gate where many a young tramp may be stopped. The police are not in a position to furnish either."

#### STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

The sixth state conference of charities and correction was held in Boulder, November 18-20. The plan of opening the conference on Sunday evening still proves satisfactory, as it results in a good attendance at the opening meeting and the attraction of such local attention that subsequent attendance of citizens is large, thus favoring a healthy sentiment in the community for future work.

The president of the conference was President James H. Baker, of the state university, who has taken an active interest in public charities, and has succeeded in establishing in the university a chair of sociology. His annual address, delivered at the opening meeting, was on "practical sociology." He urged that the pulpit should stand for all political and educational ideals, for all reforms. It should teach the people sound principles of philanthropy, and by every influence and sanction of religion strive to preserve and increase

right feeling towards the duties of to-day. Following the president's address came the stereopticon lecture by Mr. C. F. Weller which has already been heard in a number of eastern cities. The opening session on Monday was devoted to the discussion of outdoor relief with reference to the expenditure of the poor fund at the hands of boards of county commissioners in the state. Colorado is face to face with the question whether it shall continue to practice giving official relief to the poor on the basis of alms giving, and observe the same practice in its volunteer relief associations, or whether it is possible to insist that both the state and private relief associations shall require that there shall be established both state and county systems whereby the maximum of effort and money shall be devoted to intelligent investigation and administration of relief, to the end that pauperism may be reduced to a minimum.

At the afternoon session, held at the state university, a paper was read by Prof. Arthur Allin, of the university, upon the subject of the education of delinquents, defectives, and dependents. He recommended: 1. That a committee be appointed to report at the next annual convention on possible reforms in the state's public school system, along the line of training pupils in habits of industry (manual training, sloyd work, etc.). 2. Extension of sloyd work into manual training of an occupational nature and initiation into technic. 3. Extension of athletics both as an interesting activity and as an initiation into habits of work and steady persistency of aim. 4. More outdoor athletic exercises and occupations and a gymnasium for the inmates of the girl's industrial home. 5. Teaching the subjects of the public school curriculum as means towards the solution of occu-

pational problems instead of as ends in themselves. 6. Introduction of massage, Turkish baths, etc., with the imperfect and defective. 7. Introduction of dancing. 8. An expert commission appointed by the state to examine the past of each child committed by the judge. 9. Physical measurements to be taken and records kept by the state of defectives, dependents, and delinquents. 10. Careful medical examination of inmates to ascertain if there are optical, auditory, or other organic defects. 11. Publication of the actual work done in the institutions in the newspapers. 12. A committee to be appointed to investigate best methods of dealing with those adolescents who do not or cannot attend the regular high school. 13. Establishment of a laboratory in the asylum under the competent management of a scientist and expert who will teach and train the warders and nurses by thorough instruction with patients ante-mortem and post-mortem.

At the evening session Rev. Thomas H. Malone, a catholic priest and a member of the state board of charities, spoke favorably of the possibilities of institutional care for dependent children, but on the other hand appreciated and indorsed the home-finding idea which is the method of work under the law in Colorado. He criticised the law in some features, exposed defects, and urged the necessity of some amendments, as well as the passage of a law requiring state inspection and control of the placing out of dependent children by private associations. In speaking of the questionable methods of some private societies, he asserted that there is a traffic in children, men and women often receiving money per head for each child brought to the institution or for each child placed out, entailing

scandals, the deception of parents and guardians and of benevolent people who support these private institutions without knowing the details of their management. In conclusion, he recommended an increase in agency work on the part of the state home for children, so that more homes may be found for children committed by the courts to the state home. He recommended that some means should be found to require parents who have neglected their children to help pay for their support when committed to the state home, although he did not indorse the return of the child to the parent. He thought that when parents are found in employment they should give part of their earnings to compensate the state for its care. The operation of the law regarding the payment of fees to county officials in commitments results in trouble to charitable institutions supported by the state. Where county officials secure fees for their services the results can not always be of the best. He advocated that the state should refuse to support children brought into the state from other commonwealths.

Tuesday morning's session was devoted to a discussion of prison labor. Rev. E. Evans Carrington, of Colorado Springs, read a carefully prepared paper on the industrial phase of prison reform.

The conference reelected President Baker and will meet in Colorado Springs next year. It was decided to arrange for the publication of the proceedings of the meeting and to provide for a thorough organization of the conference upon a delegate plan.

The first annual meeting of the Kansas association of charities and correction, an outgrowth of the national conference meeting of last spring, was held at Topeka, November 30 and December

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1. The opening address was made by Governor W. E. Stanley, who from the beginning of his official service has shown a deep interest in the charitable and correctional institutions of the state, an interest which has already resulted in improved management. As has been the experience elsewhere, it is felt in Kansas that a live governor who has ability to withstand the force of adverse political pressure can do more to advance the administration of affairs than perhaps any other man or group of men. Governor Stanley's address was followed by the annual address by the president of the association, Prof. F. W. Blackmar, giving a review of the work already done, with suggestions and plans for the future. Mr. H. H. Hart gave a well-received stereopticon lecture on the child-saving movement. The main work of the conference was the consideration of the reports of the committees appointed to investigate poor farms and poor houses, incorrigibles, protection and relief, epileptics and insane, dependent children, legislation and management, jails and lockups, and defectives. These reports were of value, as they dealt directly with the facts involved. The conditions were ascertained by actual investigation, and the proposals for remedies were logical and practical. Our Kansas correspondent "would recommend this kind of a program to organizations rather than the program of long harangues and learned papers filled up mostly with theory and presupposed superior wisdom," a recommendation which, taken *cum grano salis*, the REVIEW indorses. The Kansas association aims to find out just how things are, and this its committees, by systematic and specific inquiry, are doing, providing a substantial foundation upon which to build.

Perhaps the leading thoughts brought out were, first, a need of

classification of individuals in their respective groups with special treatment according to the needs of the individual or class; second, profitable employment for inmates of insane asylums, poor farms, industrial schools, etc.; third, elimination of the influences of partisan politics; fourth, changes in legislation which will make possible these reforms; fifth, the choice of persons to fill official positions who are specially prepared and adapted for the work. The association would seem to have settled down to a campaign of practical work. The present officers and committees, with few exceptions, were continued for another year.

The fifth annual session of Illinois. The Illinois state conference of charities was held in Champaign, November 14 and 15. First vice-president W. R. Jewell, of Danville, presided. The university of Illinois invited the conference to hold its sessions in the university chapel, Prof. Kinley and Prof. Hammond of the department of economics were upon the program committee, President Draper delivered an address of welcome, and the cordial co-operation and sympathy of the university were among the most cheering and hopeful features of the conference. The program had few papers and was intended to afford ample time for discussion, but as usual in a meeting of any vitality the opportunity for discussion was too short.

The first afternoon was taken up by a consideration of the operation of the childrens' law of 1899 in Cook county (Chicago), and its extension to the other counties of the state. Judge R. S. Tuthill, who presides over the juvenile court, which this law established in Chicago, made a valuable address, tracing the progress of legislation for children in Illinois, and dwelling on the value of the work done by the volunteer probation officers of his court. He



pointed out the heavy burden of such labor and the impossibility of securing enough volunteer help in Chicago, and made clear that the legislature should be urged to authorize the payment of adequate salaries to a corps of well qualified parole and probation officers.

In the evening Governor Mount of Indiana spoke most effectively on the relation of party politics to the administration of state charitable and penal institutions. He recounted the experiences of Indiana, and showed with equal modesty and effectiveness the power of a single determined man in the governor's chair to rescue the institutions of a state from political control. The discussion following Governor Mount's address was opened by Mr. Ephraim Banning, a member of the Illinois board of public charities. Mr. Banning stated that this board had voted to recommend its own abolition and the substitution of some more authoritative form of supervision; that this would be urged on the ground that a small, carefully-chosen non-partisan board, to be appointed for long terms and adequately salaried, such as the New York lunacy commission, will be able to economize in purchases, to equalize the administration of the institutions, and, above all, will greatly facilitate the introduction of a system of appointments for merit alone.

Thursday morning was devoted to an inspection of the university and a short business session. Thursday afternoon President David Felmley, chairman of the committee on outdoor relief in Illinois, made a careful and very suggestive report. He argued strongly against the plan of township relief for Illinois which has found favor in Ohio, saying that in Illinois the county and not the township is the proper taxing unit. He also named various counties in

which to compel certain of the townships to support their own poor would manifestly be as impracticable as to compel the river wards of Chicago to maintain all their expenses. He strongly urged the re-enactment of the Indiana law compelling publication of lists of beneficiaries and reporting same with details to the state board of charities. An animated discussion, overrunning the time, followed, and the committee was continued for another year.

The Thursday evening program consisted of an address by Miss Jane Addams of Hull house, Chicago, on education and public charity, and two speeches by members of the university faculty. Dr. Oscar King spoke on behalf of the school of medicine and Prof. M. B. Hammond for the department of economics. Both addresses gave evidence of that spirit of co-operation and the desire to co-ordinate forces which was a most interesting characteristic of the entire conference. Dr. King pointed out the great impetus to medical study which would be given if the pathological work of the insane hospitals were carried on in conjunction with the pathological laboratory of the state medical school.

As another instance of the co-operating spirit which marked the meeting, it may be mentioned that in the discussion following Judge Tuthill's address it was suggested that the extension of the parole and probation features of the children's law must depend upon volunteer effort, and that as a matter of fact this work—if done at all—must be done by women. Mrs. Stanwood, president of the state federation of women's clubs, and delegates from many clubs were in attendance. They held a special meeting the next morning and it was the sense of those present that the federation should and would take up the matter

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As the Illinois legislature meets this winter a legislative committee was appointed with power to act. Its chief purposes are to further the adoption of a merit system for the state institutions, and to obtain needed amendments to the children's law. Mr. T. D. Hurley of Chicago was elected president for the ensuing two years.

#### Michigan.

The nineteenth annual convention of the state conference of corrections and charities, and of the county agents' association, was held at Grand Rapids, December 13 and 14, the interest which has ever been manifested in these conventions in Michigan being fully maintained.

The subjects presented and discussed were the state's children, criminal law and its administration, the county agency system, official charities, and institutionalism in charity. Under the first head the discussion centered about the question, "What can be done for children in our charitable institutions who have reached the age limit?" This problem is of great interest and importance to Michigan, and will probably be taken up again in future conferences. Criminal law and its administration was presented by Hon. A. J. Mills, ex-circuit judge of Kalamazoo district. The following allusion in his paper elicited a discussion which, it is hoped, will result in the correction of the evil named: "The constables, many so-called detectives, are also subject to the degrading influences of the fee system." Judge John W. Holcomb, of Grand Rapids, presented a general statement of the county agency system, which, by the way, is exclusively a Michigan one. He was followed by brief reports from the county agents present, of their work for the year. Hon. Levi L. Barbour,

a former member of the state board of corrections and charities, presented a report on official charities, which was largely statistical, though it included much that was interesting in the work of the different charitable institutions of the state.

The report of the committee on institutionalism in charity was presented by Hon. C. A. Gower, of Lansing, who very strongly advocated personality in charity, deeming the institution necessary for centralization and system, but feeling that the contact of individuals wrought the most lasting good to the beneficiaries.

At the first meeting Hon. Harvey J. Hollister, of Grand Rapids, president of the convention, paid a well-deserved tribute to the chairman of the Michigan state board of corrections and charities, Bishop George D. Gillespie, who completes this year twenty-four years' continuous service as a member of the board, during which time, "for nearly a quarter of a century, summer and winter, without hesitation, in weakness and strength, he has given his presence and ripe judgment to all those interests so vital to the state's welfare."

#### Minnesota.

The bulletin of charities and correction for September contains much useful information. Among other items is a statistical table showing the enumeration of paupers, by counties, in Minnesota, whereby it appears that the total number reported in June, 1900, is 6,676 as against 7,480 in June, 1899; also the census of prisoners in Minnesota June 30, 1900, the total number being 1,260 as against 1,205 in 1899; 1,212 in 1898, and 1,244 in 1897. Other items relate to the inspection of state and county charitable and correctional

institutions, and show the necessity of continuing increasingly this form of work.

**New York.** The committee of the state board of charities on soldiers and sailors' homes, which investigated the soldiers and sailors' home at Bath, has submitted a report practically vindicating Col. C. O. Shepard, the former commandant of the home, from the charges that were made against him, because, it is alleged, he was not sufficiently subservient to the wishes of a little ring of local politicians which had the institution in its grasp. On the other hand, members of the board of trustees then in office are severely censured.

The secretary has been directed to send reports of inspections to a large number of private charitable institutions throughout the state, calling the attention of their respective boards of managers of the necessity for changes therein, most of them with relation to matters of minor importance. The officers of the board are now busy with the preparation of the thirty-fourth annual report to the legislature which is shortly to convene. This will cover the year 1900, and will probably be presented to the senate early in January.

#### CHILDREN.

**Massachusetts.** The report of the Lyman school for boys for the year ending September 30, 1900, states that an attempt has been made to apply within the institution the principle of self-government. This experiment has doubtless been

prompted by the reported remarkable success of the plan at the George junior republic, Freeville, N. Y. In the Massachusetts institution the trustees consider that "the experiment is too tentative to allow even a forecast of results, while the details of method are experimental from month to month and so can not properly be set forth in a report." The following paragraph from the same report, in view of the fact that the Lyman school is one of the most successful reformatories in the country, is suggestive:

#### A Receipt for Institution Success.

Under the most favorable circumstances a successful reform school is a hard thing to achieve, and many are the visitors who come from all parts of the land to see what Massachusetts has to teach. Is the cottage system preferable to the congregate? Are Swedish gymnastics or military drill the better? And shall educational manual training or trade teaching be preferred? The Lyman school has chosen the first of each of these alternatives, but it is not upon any of these that the chief stress should be laid. To the inquiries often addressed to the trustees as to a receipt for success they would answer: Find a capable superintendent, and, having found him, do not tie his hands. Have a policy, of course, but more important than the policy is the man. No board, however devoted, can successfully run an institution. Be a superintendent ever so capable he can not succeed if he does not have power and responsibility. If he is not fit to exercise power, to have a free hand in employing and discharging officers, or in initiating and developing such methods as his experience

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#### Colorado.

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suggests, he is not fit to fill the office, and the sooner he demonstrates his incapacity the better. While the board trusts him with the office let it give him the chance to succeed. Let it lay on him the responsibility for succeeding, and shoulder the responsibility for so doing. That, at any rate, has been the policy of the trustees of the Lyman school, and to that they attribute any success which of recent years the institution has attained.

#### Colorado.

The tenth biennial report of the Colorado state industrial school for boys at Golden shows that during the biennial period 200 boys have been received, 114 paroled, 4 escaped, 1 pardoned. The school has increased in population from 118, on November 30, 1898, to 182 on November 30, 1900, due in a measure to the action of the compulsory education law whereby truants are committed to this institution. The progress of this school from being a purely penal institution to a state training school has been rapid. Two years ago the REVIEW commented unfavorably upon the condition of the baths at the institution, and now it is a pleasure to state that the school is supplied with a model bath house, fitted with shower baths having both hot and cold water. Stoves in the main building have been supplanted by a steam-heating plant, a modern steam-cooking plant has been placed in the kitchen, and a modern steam laundry has been established. Electric lights with a power plant will soon be completed. It is the purpose of the management to fit up a school-room in the power plant for the purpose of giving practical instruction under a competent teacher in electricity. The report includes a full exposition of the merit system which has been established.

#### Indiana.

The report of the state board of charities of Indiana for the year ending October 31, 1900, states that the department for placing out children, under the control of the state board of charities, placed 244 children in families during the year, and visited 820 children who had been placed in homes by state or local institutions.

In the states of Texas and Arkansas strong movements are on foot for the establishment of boys' reform schools. In Milwaukee, the county authorities are considering the advisability of adding a reformatory department to the county home for destitute children opened a few years ago.

#### Chicago.

The Chicago visitation and aid society has established a publication known as the *Juvenile Record*. The new publication is expected to contain full reports of the work of the Chicago juvenile court, and, generally, of the Chicago institutions and societies for the care of dependent children.

#### Employment Exchange.

A young man and wife, college graduates, experienced in the work of state boys' industrial schools, wish to correspond with any one seeking competent christian people to organize or superintend a similar institution.

#### The Isolation Hospital.

Apropos of what we said recently about the need of contagious hospitals or isolation wards in every considerable town or city of the country, for use of

patients having contagious diseases. In Baltimore, a few weeks ago, a man taken with a virulent form of diphtheria is reported to have gone from hospital to hospital without being able to secure admission, after having been turned out of the house where he was taken sick, on account of the nature of his disease. The hospitals are scarcely to be blamed for refusing to take the man. The fault lies with the city in not providing a suitable place for such cases. The man was finally accommodated in a bare room at the city hall annex masquerading under the name of detention hospital.

**Orange  
Hospital.**

The proposed isolation hospital at Orange, N. J., mention of which was made some time ago, has had a setback, because the contribution which was to have been made by the city can not be granted. It is found that such a grant would increase the floating and funded debt to an amount beyond the legal limit. About one-third of the necessary money, however, has been raised, and efforts will not be relinquished to secure the balance.

**State  
Consumption  
Sanatoria.**

In both Iowa and Texas bills will be introduced in the legislature to secure state sanatoria. The Iowa state board of health is circulating leaflets on the subject, endeavoring

to arouse public sentiment to the necessity of this step. The Texan bill, already drafted, carries with it an appropriation of \$100,000.

**Women as  
Inspectors of  
Tenements.**

Some time ago a woman inspector was appointed in Yonkers, N. Y., following the plan adopted some years ago by Glasgow and other cities of England and Scotland. It is claimed that this inspector is able to accomplish much better results than men could do. Her work is of the widest range, extending from inspection of bedding and floors, and seeing that children are washed by ten o'clock in the morning, to the ferreting out and providing for cases of contagious disease. One result has been a marked improvement in the school attendance of the city. No special force other than persistence is used to gain access to the tenement homes.

**Tenements in  
Denver.**

It is stated that the building inspector of Denver is determined to discourage the erection of the typical Eastern tenement house in that city. Application has been made for a series of houses in which there are a number of rooms having no windows permitting the entrance of fresh air. It is probable that a building permit will be refused, it being within the power of the inspector and the health commissioner to do so.

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## THE USE OF MUSIC IN THE TRAINING OF DISCORDANT CHILDREN.

BY ADINA MITCHELL.

It is now fairly well agreed among educators and educated tax-payers that music should be not alone a pastime for the well-to-do or a vehicle for the exemplification of genius, but an essential study in the common school curriculum. Its value in the moulding and building of character is being widely recognized. To gain this position, however, has been a slow process, and it is even now a struggle to maintain the advantage secured, educational matters being so frequently placed in the hands of politicians or of those who because of lack of education and training are not qualified for their positions. That the progress of music as an element in the free education of the masses has made comparatively little headway in this country is in a great measure due to the fact that it has not been placed upon a broad enough basis, and its demonstration has not been made sufficiently practical to satisfy public opposition to the expense of teaching what has been deemed an art or an unessential accomplishment for the opulent.

The writer's labor and practical experience in observing the effect of music upon discordant children has been principally with the boys and

girls of the Whittier state school, a reform institution for juvenile delinquents maintained by the state of California. The methods which have been introduced and the practical results achieved there constitute the basis of the present paper.

At Whittier the musical instruction is given by one woman, a thoroughly competent teacher, and by a band-master. The labors of the latter are confined to teaching the members of a brass band, numbering about twenty boys. Aside from the band, there are ten school-room classes in music. To each of these the instructor gives a half-hour of music study twice a week, and chorus work one evening each week. For the last four years the fundamental principles of music have been taught. The children learn to read and write music, and by this practice acquire knowledge of time and measure and musical signatures. By learning to be accurate in this work they have strengthened and improved the memory, which with this class of children is extremely poor.

A feature of the work of the last three years has been tests in sight reading. To emphasize the effect of this, after a vacation of three months, the music work was resumed

in the school-room, and it was wonderful to note with what pleasure and real happiness the children renewed this study, and how well they remembered what had been taught them before. This was notably so with the larger boys, who, at the time of their early instruction, had apparently cared little for the real study of music. This is significant when it is understood that the majority of these boys have been frequenters of the orpheum and vaudeville gallery, and that their musical taste had been fed upon popular songs and rag-time melodies, the words of the song never being considered, only the ear-catching tune.

When first introducing practical music work in the school-room, the children were allowed to a limited degree to indulge their taste by selecting the best popular songs. Marches and waltz songs were particularly attractive. The folk-songs and national songs followed, and later selections from light opera and occasional grand opera and oratorio, with orchestral accompaniment. Then after a time solo work was given. Of this the children were a little shy at first, but after they had learned to breathe fairly well, and had gleaned a fuller knowledge in sight reading, they took to it more readily, no doubt feeling greater freedom of thought and action because they then understood better what they were trying to do.

A particular endeavor has been to teach the meaning of the words

sung. In taking up a song the children are first made, before singing, to read the words and to comprehend their meaning. Otherwise they are liable to become so fascinated with the melody that it is a hard task for them to grasp the importance of the words. They are made to understand the value of words, not merely using them for vocal coloring, but for the development of thought, and that they may comprehend that there is something besides tonal effect. Through a knowledge of the meaning of the words the child comes to appreciate the beauty and value of poetry. The refining effects that follow from such association are incalculable. There are many children who would never read a line of poetry or feel its ennobling influence if they had not at first become acquainted with it through their songs. Remembering that the ideals of youth follow through all the after career, it has been thought worth while to make special use of this opportunity of arousing and inspiring the child life.

Discordant children seem to be especially fond of singing. This love for song affords a basis from which not only to develop pure thoughts, but to lead the children into a true musical atmosphere. From the desire to give proper expression to the song an ambition to know more of music is aroused. It must be understood that these children come from numberless influences which make the work at first

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very difficult, especially so if the groups are large, as has been the case at the Whittier school. Most of the material to work upon is, from a mental standpoint, of the poorest. But, like new soil, after arduous clearing, grubbing up roots, planting, cultivating, and sowing, a crop of desire grows at last. It has been impossible to give individual training in so large an institution; but as much as possible the individual child is watched and dealt with musically as seems best. A class of forty-five sturdy boys, who, in their efforts to please, and to throw off some of their animal spirits, shout louder and louder some patriotic song, is a little trying at times; but after faithful and patient work with small groups outside the schoolroom, some day when the forty-five are together the reward comes, when by a slight raising of the hand they sing at one's pleasure. But the greatest happiness in the work comes in seeing the child grow day by day to be gentle and obedient and to lose its self-consciousness.

At the Whittier school, with the exception of the younger boy sopranos and a few tenors and basses, the majority of the boys are passing through the voice-changing period. This class is usually in a very rough, unmusical, and inharmonious condition; but their desire to sing is intense, and it requires very tactful methods to lead them to do more of the thinking work, the real intellectual study, during this affliction. In

this trying part of the work, a classification of younger boys to the morning school and the older boys to the afternoon school has been of great assistance. It has enabled the teacher to harmonize the voices by grouping as much as possible.

An adjunct to musical instruction in the school, which has proven most beneficial and has been the greatest aid to progress and success in musical advancement, has been the musical entertainments, in which the boys and girls have furnished the numbers for the programs. Each Sunday afternoon an entertainment is given, consisting of quartets, solos, vocal and instrumental, and orchestral music, and these exercises have been a great incentive to musical study. The pupils, who of necessity have to prepare for these occasions, are ambitious to excel before their schoolmates. Children's critical powers are keenly developed. In fact, they are frequently hypercritical.

The children's glee club gives quarterly concerts, assisted by the elocution and physical culture classes. Solos form one of the salient features of these concerts, the children being trained to put some dramatic action into their singing. Dramatic suggestion stimulates them wonderfully; it lifts them up and out of sluggish and heavy attitudes, and for the time being at least they live in a higher realm of thought. The value of dramatic expression with these children is considerable, especially in connection with music.

It seems to free the mind and body of the pupil more readily than when presented in any other form.

A most successful and popular feature of the musical entertainments has been a "toy symphony," given by the youngest boy pupils. This inspired the little ones greatly and created a healthy rivalry to secure a position in the "toy orchestra." To carry a part there requires a proper idea of time and the reading of music.

At times the best artists that could be secured have visited the school and entertained the children. These concerts given by outside talent have had great influence upon the music work and have proven beneficial morally and mentally.

In connection with these school entertainments it is well to add that by charging the general public of the locality contiguous to the school a small admission fee, a fund has been raised sufficient to purchase orchestral instruments for both the girls and boys' departments, and to furnish particularly apt pupils special instruction on the violin.

The merit system is used in connection with the teaching of music. Those who are most ambitious and faithful in their musical work in the school-room are permitted to have extra instrumental study, removed from school-room routine, and solo work. Of course this requires a great deal of time, but all extra time given to musical work outside of the school-rooms must be taken from

recreation hours, as industrial tasks consume the rest of the day. All the children who undertake this extra music work are pleased to make the sacrifice. In fact they regard it as a privilege, and they are ever ready to give up their play-time for musical practice and study. It has taken the girls' department four years to arrive at this point, and to reach it they had to come out of very inharmonious conditions. I have never met with children who seemed more eager for music than this class of children, once their interest has been aroused and they acquire understanding of the work.

In the girls' department the advanced pupils assist in teaching backward pupils, under supervision of the musical instructor. Sometimes these pupils have one or several to teach, upon some instrument of which they have a competent understanding. To illustrate: the most advanced pupil on the piano has at present a class of seven; the most advanced on the violin, a class of six; similarly with the guitar and the zither. Thus in securing the results that have been obtained in this institution the advanced pupils have greatly assisted. Their co-operation is helpful to the pupil in more ways than one; it gives the children the right kind of independence, and they find encouragement in the thought that they are helping some one else. And it causes them to take a greater interest in the general work of the school than they would otherwise.

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The band has always formed a part of the Whittier school system, but since the children have been taught to read and write music in the school-room it has been greatly improved, and excellent work is done notwithstanding a constant change in membership by reason of the boys going out and new recruits coming in. At a recent band contest for prizes, awarded to the best bands of this locality, the school band earned, and was awarded, a prize over other and adult bands. This success and progress is believed to be due in a great measure to the teaching of the fundamentals of music in the school-room. The band, which is handsomely uniformed and supplied with well-selected instruments, is very popular, and is in demand for all important parades and public functions. Its members are made much over by the public, and this encourages them in many ways.

To secure the proper kind of songs for school work has been very difficult. The usual school songs that are published are meager and unfit for the average musically intelligent child. The song writers seem to have the impression that they must descend to an imaginary child level. Teachers of music, who work with children earnestly and sincerely, soon learn that in most instances they are in a great degree responsible for a child's musical taste. If it is continually gorged with trash, it is apt to become musically dyspeptic, however talented it may be. I know

personally of several cases, and one in particular, where a real musical genius was greatly handicapped, and eventually may be destroyed, by the wrong presentation of music. Instructors should be persons especially gifted for this delicate work. It is particularly essential that in such schools as Whittier the teachers should be in every way qualified. They should not only be thorough musicians, but of the highest personal character, a trait which in itself greatly aids the development of all that is best in the child. The musical quack should be dropped out of existence.

A summary of the writer's views as to the value of music in the discipline and reform of delinquent children was presented as part of an official report to the governor of California in 1898. The opinions there expressed may be restated in part here:

The development of the children by the study of music and its practice and rendering has been a potent influence in the successful work accomplished at Whittier. The importance of music and the encouragement of this branch of instruction can not be overestimated. Without any desire to be didactic, one may with propriety quote in support of this theory and practice the opinion of Browning,

There is no truer truth obtainable  
By man than comes of music.

The Greeks understood the value of music in training their emotions as well as they did the fact that the

gymnasium trained them in the exercise of their limbs. The Greek thinker held that music was not only refining in its influence, but that certain kinds of music promoted a warlike spirit and made formidable warriors. There is no question as to the wonderful power that patriotic music exerts over the people, and especially over armies. Scotchmen, the most tenacious of fighters, never go into battle without the bagpipes playing, and always above the din of battle may be heard their shrill notes.

Clearly music arouses and sustains emotion. But it also disciplines and controls emotion. One passage of music will stir the heart to tears; another, to laughter; a religious passage will often bring out the divine in our natures. Many a heart-weary man and woman, perhaps, has been restrained from some serious crime by the accidental hearing of the familiar strains of some old sweet song. The vision it brought them had its own chastening and purifying effect, although the realization of it was not near. Numerous instances could be cited to prove that music really rouses, and then takes in hand and rules at its will, thereby teaching us to govern the emotions.

It is certain that when we hear music intelligently, we are actually cultivating abstract habits of mind which may hereafter be applied as trained forces to the affairs of our daily life. This is one reason that in the Whittier school music has been made so prominent a factor in the education and reform of the children. It has been of great assistance to us in the unlocking of closed

chambers of the mind and in teaching control of the emotions, which, with this class of children, are so easily aroused.

We have placed before them the best in music, for it is just as easy to cultivate a right taste at first as a wrong one. And in making them see music and understand it, we have always endeavored to present it truthfully to them, for nothing can be more false than to suppose that morality may be served by false representation. The outcome has been that music has become to the children, unconsciously, the voice of their nobler aspirations and the steady disciplinarian of their emotions. It has helped them in their school work and in their trades. Several boys have said that music seemed to have assisted them in their mathematics, and to have enabled them to understand many things that before were blank.

The girls have been incalculably helped by music. Most of them have excellent voices, and several are quite talented, while all have been taught to love music for music's sake. These girls are of necessity more restricted than the boys. What are they to do with their days full of duties which have sometimes become insufferable? Often they may have worked until their fingers and backs ached in doing things many people think only girls are fit for. The monotony of it all makes them restless and dissatisfied, sometimes wicked or frivolous. An outlet is needed. Music has been the channel through which the monotony has been swept away, quieting the restless spirit, subduing the baneful thought.

# INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF DESTITUTE ADULTS.<sup>1</sup>

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY ROBERT W. HEBBERD,

Secretary of the New York State Board of Charities.

The most common institution for the care of destitute adults in the United States being the public almshouse, by whatsoever local name known, this paper will be devoted largely to a consideration of the establishment and growth of this class of institutions. At the same time other institutions for the care of destitute adults, such as homes for the aged, homes for soldiers and sailors, homes for the blind, and temporary homes or shelters, will also receive some measure of attention. The study is intended primarily to be a record of conditions at the close of the century, with a review of past conditions sufficient to show the gradual extension of the almshouse system and the growth of other institutions for the care of destitute adults. Because of the scope to be covered and the necessary space limitation of the paper, the subject can be treated in general outline only, but it will be the purpose of the writer to refer the student to data that will enable him to pursue his inquiries in detail.

In order to have anything ap-

proaching an intelligent conception of the nature of the institutional care provided for destitute adults in this country during the nineteenth century, and of the gradual evolution of that care from former harsh and primitive methods to the present relatively high standard, it is necessary to refer briefly to conditions existing during a period which considerably antedates the beginning of the present century. It seems advisable also to consider the conditions existing prior to the time that the kind of care here indicated was so generally bestowed, whether before or after the opening of the century.

## I EARLY METHODS OF CARING FOR DESTITUTE ADULTS.

In earlier days in this country, as well as in England, there seems to have been, so far as the record shows, a want of distinction between the treatment of the pauper and that given to the vagabond or petty criminal, both being dealt with, apparently, along the same general lines. It is, however, not improbable that in actual practice some distinction was made between these two

<sup>1</sup> Synopsis of paper:

- i. Early methods of caring for destitute adults.
- ii. Care of the poor by contract.
- iii. Three great almshouses:  
Boston, 1662. Philadelphia, 1731.  
New York, 1736.

- iv. The almshouse system.
- v. Homes for the aged.
- vi. Homes for the blind and the deaf.
- vii. Soldiers and sailors' homes.
- viii. Temporary homes and shelters.

classes of individuals, especially where it was definitely known that the pauperism was produced by misfortune rather than by misconduct.

Professor John Cummings in his history of the poor laws of Massachusetts and New York, in describing the conditions in the province of Massachusetts Bay during the latter part of the seventeenth century, points out that "conditions peculiar to a new and under-settled country made any elaborate provision for the destitute poor unnecessary. Aid in the form of work the settlers could give to any willing hand. Men lived plainly and felt very little sympathy with those who failed to exact a livelihood from the not too fertile soil. Extreme prudence and extreme thrift among them sometimes gave rise to petty jealousies between one settlement and another. Each town took care that no strangers who seemed likely to become public charges were admitted as inhabitants. The same sort of narrow-minded zeal for local interests which led to the passage of the act of settlement in England under Charles II, led to the passage of orders of a like animus in the towns of New England, where every landholder and voter was interested in keeping taxes low, and, to that end, interested in keeping needy strangers out."

The records of Plymouth colony show the enactment of a statute in the year 1642, which provides: "If hereafter any inhabitant of any

town within this government shall receive or bring in any person or persons as is apparently likely to be chargeable to the township (against whom just exception is made at the time of his coming or within a month after) without the consent and assent of the townsmen in a lawful general public town meeting, the party or parties that so received or brought them shall discharge the town of them."

The colony of Massachusetts Bay in 1655 enacted a statute containing the following provisions: "There being complaint made to this court of very great charge arising to several towns by reason of strangers pressing in without the consent and approbation of the inhabitants, and no law to prevent the same, this court doth therefore order, that henceforth all towns in this jurisdiction shall have liberty to prevent the coming in of such as come from other parts or places of these jurisdictions, and that all such persons as shall be brought into any town without the consent and allowance of the prudential men, shall not be charged to the towns where they dwell, but, if necessity require, shall be relieved and maintained by those that were the cause of their coming in, of whom the town or selectmen are hereby empowered to require security at their entrance, or else forbid them entertainment."

From this it is safe to infer that a stranger traveling abroad in the colonies of Plymouth and of Massa-

chusetts failed to provide for his own support, and that he was a burden on the hospitalities of the community.

In the history of the poor laws, the provision for the relief of the poor is made a matter of course, and the work of the poor laws is not only a necessary part of the life of the community, but it is also a matter of public interest. The history of the poor laws is a history of the struggle for the relief of the poor, and it is a history that is full of interest and of instruction.



chusetts Bay at the period indicated failed to meet with any particularly hospitable reception, especially if his attire indicated to the thrifty settlers that his condition was not one of comparative affluence.

In the early part of the next century, as Professor Cummings further tells us, "The general court (of the province of Massachusetts Bay) made provision for the appointment of overseers and for the erection of workhouses in small towns too insignificant to be the subject of special laws. Two or more towns might unite to build a workhouse. In such cases the expenses of building, repairing, and furnishing the house were to be borne by the towns in proportion as they were rated in the province tax at the time of building or repairing, or in such other proportion as the towns themselves should agree. Any town which refused to bear its portion of expenses lost all right to send its poor to the common workhouse. Any three overseers of the poor in a town might commit indigent persons, in receipt of aid or likely to need it, and persons who led dissolute lives.

"The able-bodied inmates were to be kept at work and the master of the house received as wages one-third the earnings of the inmates, and whatever stipend in addition might be fixed upon by the overseers. The other two-thirds of the earnings might be turned over to the master as payment, if he were willing, or it might be turned over to the family

of the inmate, or to the town, or disposed of in any other way which the town might decide. Each town had to bear the expense of supporting its own inmates, who were to be kept diligently at work during the time of their commitment. The same overseers who committed, or the overseers in a general meeting, or the justice of the general court, on application, might discharge the inmates."

Thus it is seen that the towns of Massachusetts, at the period named, dealt with at least a portion of their dependent poor very much as vagabonds and petty criminals are to-day dealt with in the larger cities of the United States. Later, as will be shown herein, very similar conditions existed in New York state, and they continued in Massachusetts, in a modified form, perhaps, until long after the beginning of the present century.

In 1699, while Johannes de Peyster was mayor of New York, the poor received partial relief in their homes, or were provided with lodgings in private houses. It is related that in 1707, in order to make those dependent upon public relief feel the degradation of their position, the city fathers enacted a law requiring all persons provided with food and lodging at the city's expense to wear a badge upon their sleeves formed of the letters "N. Y." in blue or red cloth. At a still earlier period, under the Dutch government, vagrants and beggars were hoisted

to a sort of gallows, by a rope fastened to the waist-band, and kept "dangling and sprawling between heaven and earth for an hour or two at a time, to the great delight of the respectable citizens who flocked to see the novel exhibition."<sup>1</sup>

By chapter 62 of the laws of New York for 1788, it was "provided as a guarantee against the introduction and settlement of poor strangers, that any inhabitant of any city or town who should entertain a stranger, not having a settlement within the state, for the space of fifteen days, without giving notice to one of the overseers of the poor of 'name, quality, condition, and circumstances of the person,' should forfeit forty shillings for each offence—the fine to be recovered by any person who should sue, one half going to the prosecutor and one-half to the overseers of the poor. And if the stranger had been so entertained over forty days, any two justices of the peace might cause the inhabitant rendering such entertainment 'for a longer space than fifteen days, without giving information thereof,' to be brought before them 'to enter into a bond to the overseers of the poor in the sum of one hundred pounds, conditional that such stranger should not become a charge to such city or town.'

"Those unable to enter into such a bond might be cast into jail; or if the justices thought advisable they might order the stranger to be passed

on from constable to constable to place of settlement or out of the state. The expenses of transportation were to be borne by the respective cities or counties, and the constable to be allowed for his services so much 'as the supervisor of the city or county should judge he reasonably deserved to have.' A person so removed who returned might, in the discretion of the judges, be whipped—if a man not exceeding thirty-nine, if a woman not exceeding twenty-five lashes." A decidedly warm reception to visitors from out of town.

By chapter 51 of the laws of New York for 1820, the supervisors of the county of Rensselaer were authorized "to purchase land and erect a house of industry. . . . When any poor person applied for relief in any town, the judge might, in preference to ordering any other relief, order such person to be removed to the house of industry. The judge might also, with the consent of the supervisors, commit disorderly persons to the house of industry for terms not exceeding six months. And overseers of the poor might take up any child under fifteen found begging or soliciting charity and send such child to the house of industry. Persons committed were to labor as they might be able under penalty of solitary confinement on bread and water. The expense of supporting the institution was to be a charge upon the county, and be assessed on towns in

<sup>1</sup> The charities of New York, John P. Ritter, *Social Economist*, September, 1894.

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proportion to the number and expense of support of the paupers from each town, or in such other way as the supervisors might elect. No town without its own consent was made subject to the act. The superintendents were to provide materials for the inmates to work upon."

In Vermont, in 1824, "idle persons" could be bound out to labor or sent to a workhouse. Poor children could also be bound out. Two or more towns were empowered to unite in building a workhouse. New-comers in a town might be warned to leave it, and those who returned after being removed were subject to a penalty of ten stripes.

In Rhode Island, in the same year, poor children might be bound out, and so might grown persons if they were "idlers." Paupers were removable by order, subject to an appeal which might have been taken. A pauper after removal, was, upon his return, subject to the penalty of twenty-nine stripes. A penalty of \$100 was inflicted on the person who brought a pauper into the state.

New Jersey had similar laws. A penalty was inflicted for entertaining strangers, but "certificate paupers" could reside anywhere. Poorhouses could be built in any town or city, if the inhabitants wished it, and paupers refusing to be there supported were to be struck off the list. Paupers could be removed to their places of settlement, and if they returned after such removal, were sub-

ject to fifteen lashes and confinement on bread and water.<sup>1</sup>

This want of distinction between the pauper and the vagabond, apparently so common in the earlier times, while materially diminished by the civilizing influences of the nineteenth century, seems to be not altogether uncommon at present in some rural communities, for instance in New York state, where in a recent report made to the state board of charities by the superintendent of state and alien poor, who has charge of the visitation and inspection of the almshouse system of the state, it is pointed out that some of the justices of the peace are in the habit of committing disorderly and vagrant persons to the almshouses, there to mingle with the aged and infirm poor. There is, however, reason to believe that this course of procedure is repulsive to public sentiment and that the continuance of it will not be tolerated, unless in the most parsimonious communities, for the object is, doubtless, solely to save money.

#### II—CARE OF THE POOR BY CONTRACT.

Before the almshouse system of the present day became so generally established, it was common to care for by contract the class of dependent poor now finding shelter within the walls of such institutions, and in some states this custom, bad as time has shown it to be, still continues in a more or less modified form. Two methods were adopted in thus providing for the poor. By one, the

<sup>1</sup> Report of secretary of state, New York, 1824.

overseers farmed them out at a stipulated price to contractors, who were willing to receive and care for them on condition of getting what labor they could from them. By the other, the poor were sold at auction, whereby those who would support them at the lowest prices became their keepers. Under the latter method, persons who were themselves almost paupers became purchasers of the poor in order to avoid becoming themselves a burden to the town. This was commonly the custom during the early part of the present century in the states of New York, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Virginia.<sup>1</sup>

Some of the evils of the contract system of caring for the poor may readily be imagined. They arise mainly from the want of proper facilities, the absence of due responsibility on the part of the keepers, and the practical impossibility of exercising needed supervision over them. Among the most prominent of these evils are, the almost universal lack of suitable domiciles for the class of dependent poor under consideration, whereby they can be maintained in a sanitary and orderly manner; the want of experienced officers and attendants directly responsible to the public; the absence of suitable discipline, firm but humane; and, too frequently, the presence of degrading influences, for in many cases it is, doubtless, true that those who seek to profit by har-

gaining for the care at their own firesides of this class of the poor are of almost as low an order in the scale of life as the paupers themselves.

The report of a special committee, through the chairman, Josiah Quincy, to the legislature of Massachusetts in 1821, has a direct and important bearing upon this point. This committee stated that the methods of caring for the poor in Massachusetts were four in number: "1. Provision for the poor by letting them out to the lowest bidder, in families at large, within the town. 2. Provision by letting them to the lowest bidder together, that is, all to one person. 3. Provision by supplies, in money or articles, at their own houses. 4. Provision by poor- or almshouses." The first method the committee considered objectionable in its character and liable to abuse, while the second was said to partake of the character of the first, being, however, less liable to abuse. The third was considered to be a source of abuse, mismanagement, and waste. Of the fourth it was said, "That the most economical mode is that of almshouses having the character of workhouses or houses of industry, in which work is provided for every degree of ability in the pauper, and thus the able poor made to provide, partially, at least, for their own support, and also to the support, or, at least, the comfort of the impotent poor. That of all

<sup>1</sup> Report of secretary of state, New York, 1824.

modes of employing the labor of the pauper, agriculture affords the best, the most healthy, and the most certainly profitable; the poor being thus enabled to raise always at least their own provisions. That the success of these establishments depends upon their being placed under the superintendence of a board of overseers, constituted of the most substantial and intelligent inhabitants of the vicinity."

The secretary of the state of New York, in a valuable report with relation to the laws for the relief and settlement of the poor, to the legislature of 1824, to which further reference will be made, said in relation to the contract system of caring for the poor: "The poor, when farmed out or sold, are frequently treated with barbarity and neglect by their keepers. More than one instance has stained our judicial records, in which it appeared that the pauper had suffered such cruelty and torture from his keeper, as to produce untimely dissolution. The British parliament, the Massachusetts legislature, and almost every writer on the subject of pauperism, have condemned these modes of providing for the support of the poor, as being wasteful in regard to economy, and cruel in regard to the paupers themselves."

The recognition of these evils and those growing out of the unwise dispensation of outdoor relief, together with other defects and abuses in the system of poor-law relief in the early

days of the present century, undoubtedly had much to do with the establishment and growth of our present almshouse system.

### III—THREE GREAT ALMSHOUSES.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, almshouses were to be found in the larger cities of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, while the older states of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Rhode Island had each of them, apparently, a well-developed system of county almshouses. This was not developed in New York, however, until nearly thirty years of the century had elapsed.

The almshouse establishments of Boston, Philadelphia, and New York (named in the order of their establishment), being the most important institutions of their kind in this country, as well as the first established, warrant special reference.

The earliest record of the establishment of an almshouse in this country that the writer has been able to find, although there is reason to believe that the poor were cared for in private homes, temporarily serving as almshouses, at a considerably earlier date, is that contained in the "memorial history of Boston," by which it appears that "In 1660, Mr. Henry Webb bequethed £100 to ye towne to bee improved for ye use of ye poore according to his will, to be reserved to ye end from time to time; it was ordered yt ye sd £100 bee improved by ye select men for ye end aforesd in some building fitt for

**The Boston Almshouse.**

yt end," and "Yt ye selectemen shall have power to make use of a piece of ground in ye comon for ye erecting an almshouse upon with suitable accomodations, or to exchange a piece of the towne's land for a piece more convenient." In 1662, this history further recites, "Itt is ordered that Mr. Peter Olliver is to join with the deacons of the church of Boston in receiving of Captain Kean's legacy of one hundred and twenty pounds to the poore and further hereby ordered to receive Mr. Webb's legacie of one hundred pounds, with several other gifts that are given for an almshouse; and the selectmen were authorized to agree for its erection."

This almshouse, which was located on Beacon street, then called "the lane leading to the almshouse," was erected in 1662 and burned in 1682.<sup>1</sup> The population of Boston at this period could not have exceeded 5,000 souls.

At a public meeting held December 18, 1682, to consider the rebuilding of the almshouse and a workhouse it was voted to provide a workhouse in some convenient part of the town where persons in need of alms could be sent to lodge and be put at work. A rate, approved by the president and council, was levied for this building, which was still unfinished in 1686. A bill against the town for supplies for the almshouse, preserved by the overseers of the poor, shows that it was lighted in 1703 by candles supplied by the father of Benjamin Franklin.<sup>2</sup>

The new building is described as a two-story brick structure of L

shape, with a gable roof fronting on Beacon street. This is shown on a map of "the towne of Boston in New England" by Captain John Bonner in 1722, to have been located in close proximity to the bridewell and nearby to Beacon hill. According to this map Boston then contained "streets, 42; lanes, 36; alleys, 22; houses, near 3,000, 1,000 brick, rest timber; and near 12,000 people."<sup>3</sup>

This institution was designed mainly, it appears, as a home for the poor, aged, and infirm. It was found, however, that the mingling under the same roof of persons deserving charity with those confined for offenses against the laws was an evil, and measures were taken in 1712 to build a house of correction. This was erected in Park street and is shown on the map of 1722.<sup>1</sup>

In 1728 a sum not to exceed £1,100, to be paid out of the money to be raised in general town meeting, was appropriated to build a granary on the common "near the almshouse," in order to make provision for laying in a stock of grain for the use of the town.<sup>2</sup>

This almshouse became in time, it is said, entirely inadequate to the demands upon it; it lacked proper facilities for the care of the sick and its unsanitary condition was a menace to the health of the inmates.<sup>1</sup> About the close of the year 1800, possibly in 1801, a new almshouse was erected in Leverett street, a picture of which can be seen in Snow's "Boston."<sup>2</sup> This is described as a brick building of three stories, with a central structure, from which wings extended. This central build-

<sup>1</sup> "Old landmarks and historical personages of Boston," Drake.

<sup>2</sup> "Memorial history of Boston," Volume iv.

<sup>3</sup> "Historic towns of New England."

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ing was considerably higher than the rest, and had lofty, arched windows, with a raised pediment relieved by ornamental work; on either gable stood a carved emblematic figure. The whole edifice was 270 feet in length by fifty-six in depth.<sup>1</sup>

This almshouse was occupied until 1823 under the charge of the overseers of the poor, who also gave outdoor relief and administered other eleemosynary gifts. In 1821 this building is said to have been "the receptacle of persons of all ages and colors, with various vices, misfortunes, and diseases,— subjects of an almshouse, a hospital, a lunatic asylum, and a prison." Josiah Quincy, as chairman of a committee of the town, reported "That the accommodations provided for the poor at the almshouse in Boston are not such as comport with the honor and interest of the town." On the recommendation of this committee the town established a new almshouse, which was called a house of industry, a view of which can be seen in Snow's "Boston." In 1849 this institution was removed to Deer island, in Boston harbor, a large building being erected, designed to accommodate not only the city poor, but state paupers as well. In 1852 this system was changed, separate provision having been made for state paupers in state almshouses.

The following year the Boston house of industry on Deer island was first occupied by the poor, and, in separate wards, by persons sentenced to that institution or the house of reformation. In 1872, Rainsford island, also in Boston harbor, was purchased and the male paupers removed thither, while a few years

later the female paupers were provided for on the Austin farm at Roxbury.<sup>2</sup> Thus, gradually, there was developed a more or less complete separation, while under the care of the Boston authorities, of the pauper and the petty criminal.

In 1887, the paupers, with the exception of those in the Charlestown almshouse, were all removed to Long island and Rainsford island, and attempts were made to establish a better classification. The buildings being on the congregate plan, however, are not very well suited to the accomplishment of this purpose, and the report of a special committee of citizens appointed by the mayor in March, 1892, to inspect the public institutions of Boston, says, "There is no classification except that made by physical condition which may place the inmates in hospital or infirmary." This committee reported in June, 1892, that the institution at Long island consisted of a large brick building, a hospital then in course of construction, and a large farm. This was intended for men, with the exception that one of the hospital wards was used for women. Rainsford island had a brick building with a large wooden farmhouse attached, and a hospital, formerly used as a quarantine, near by. This was for women. The committee also reported, "The almshouse has a motley population. Here are found the aged, the sick and demented, as well as criminals and lewd women and able-bodied loafers, young and old. Admission and discharge and free passes to the city are easily gained. The inmates may spend the winter only and go tramping in the summer,

<sup>1</sup> "Old landmarks and historical personages of Boston."

<sup>2</sup> "Memorial history of Boston."

or they may stay for years. The able-bodied may live with little work, and dissolute men and women may visit their old haunts in the city, spend a day in carousing, and return to find shelter here and a comfortable retreat in which to recruit for further recklessness. It may be truly said that for such as these this institution has in fact become a free boarding-house kept by the city." This is a sombre picture, but it is a question whether the description would not apply almost equally well to any other large almshouse establishment. In other particulars the report of this committee is intensely interesting, and its recommendations for improvement in administration well directed and practical.

April 30, 1894, another committee of citizens, including in its number members of the former committee, and known as the board of visitors to the public institutions, presented a report to the mayor and the city council on the same subject, from which the following are quotations:

"The administration at Long island, formerly united with that on Rainsford island, has, since March 20, 1893, been in charge of a separate superintendent. On February 1, 1894, there were 694 inmates at Long island, of whom 502 were males and 192 females. Of these ninety men and ninety-nine women were in the hospital, ninety-four women were in the infirmary wards, and twenty-one mothers and twenty-two children were in the nursery. The remaining 362 were men, many of them infirm and aged, and others in the full vigor of life. Women of corresponding classes are cared for at Rainsford island. The accommodations at Long island are a three-story brick building, in the

upper part of which are the women's infirmary and nursery wards, and a new hospital, ventilated and finished according to the most improved methods. The superintendent's house adjoins the hospital. A new wing to the hospital is in process of construction, as is also a large dormitory, which is intended to house all the pauper women now on Rainsford island and at the Charlestown almshouse. The new building is to cost \$100,000, and will be fitted up with all the modern improvements. Nevertheless, its congested plan and its proximity to the men's quarters are most unfortunate features, which will seriously hamper the introduction of much-needed reforms."

This board also drew a vivid picture of the mingling of the inmates of the institution, saying, "The fundamental evil in the present institution is the total lack of classification among the inmates and the accompanying failure to provide appropriate privileges and discipline for the various classes there assembled. Under present arrangements, old and young, the infirm and able-bodied, the decent poor and those whose poverty results from vice and crime, are brought together in one indiscriminate company. Except for the patients in the hospital, all the male inmates at Long island live together and all fare alike, the infirmary wards being in no material way distinct from the rest of the institution. Decrepit old men, cripples, and sturdy loafers eat together in one dining room, and lounge and smoke and play cards together in loafer's hall. A weekly ration of tobacco is given to all. All who desire are granted a pass once a month to the city; all are allowed to live in com-

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parative idleness, coming and going at will. Thus the place has become a headquarters for the idle and dissolute, who find here an easy refuge from the necessity to submit to discipline or to work for themselves or their families. No regular work is provided, and if it were, it is claimed by those in authority that under existing laws it could not be enforced. The superintendent, when he discharges for insubordination, constantly sees his authority set at naught, as the offender upon application at the commissioners' office, may receive a permit to return by the next boat."

The writer has deemed it fitting to show thus at length, from the standpoint of a body of independent citizens, the conditions which existed almost at the closing days of the nineteenth century, in the city almshouse system first established in this country. While not a gratifying showing, a knowledge of the facts should prove useful.

A summary of the recommendations of this committee is as follows:

1. That a record be kept stating as far as possible the facts known in regard to the character and history of each inmate. 2. That the institution be organized into three departments: workhouse, infirmary, and hospital. In these departments the inmates should be classified as their bodily conditions require. 3. That in the workhouse department the discipline be strict, and work enforced. The food, though ample and good of its kind, should be very plain, and few indulgences should be allowed. Tobacco, if given at all, should be given only as a privilege.

4. In the infirmary department, many comforts not proper in the workhouse department should be provided. The effort should be not merely to keep the inmates from starvation, but to make their years of helplessness as endurable as may be, within the limits of a reasonable expense. 5. That passes be abolished, except in rare instances to some decent old person or cripple wanting to visit a friend. 6. That the standard of the hospital should be raised, both in medical attendance and nursing, and in the study of disease and its cure.

On June 14, 1897, the need of a change having probably become fully realized, the pauper institutions of Boston, consisting of the almshouse and hospital on Long island, and the almshouse in Charlestown, were placed in charge of an unsalaried board of pauper institutions trustees, of seven members, appointed by the mayor, succeeding a single commissioner known as the institutions commissioner. The reports since issued by this board indicate very clearly an intelligent grasp of the situation and an earnest intention to improve the conditions as fully and as rapidly as possible.

In 1888 the daily population in the Boston almshouses was 948. During the year ending January 31, 1899, evidently under improved administrative conditions, it had decreased to 753, an actual reduction of 195, and, taking the increase of Boston's population into account, a reduction probably estimated correctly as 436.<sup>1</sup>

Among the many improvements made by this new board are: Setting aside the Charlestown almshouse for the care of women and aged couples:

<sup>1</sup> Annual report of the pauper institutions trustees, Boston, January 31, 1900.

better classification of inmates, and more extended provision for their employment; discontinuance of prison labor; employment of more paid help; increase of the milk supply, and the baking of bread at Long island; improvement of training school; and a general improvement in the condition, discipline, and work of the entire system of pauper institutions. Many other improvements are admittedly necessary, but are retarded by the unsuitable character of the buildings and the difficulty of obtaining adequate appropriations.

The Philadelphia Almshouse.

For the material part of the facts stated in this account of the Philadelphia almshouse, the writer is indebted to Captain Charles Lawrence, formerly superintendent of that institution.

The early settlers of Philadelphia were mostly Quakers and were a thrifty class of people. In time others came from surrounding settlements and, being of quite different habits, it became evident that some suitable means would have to be adopted for the relief of such as became dependent. In July, 1712, it was determined by the city council, "that, as the poor of the city are daily increasing, a workhouse should be founded for employing" them. Before this was acted upon, however, it appears that in the year 1713 an almshouse was established by the society of friends, but this was designed only, we are told, to receive members of the Quaker faith. The institution was located on the south side of Walnut street, between Third and Fourth streets. The lot, it is said, belonged to one John Martin, and contained a small tenement. Mar-

tin, who was poor, gave his property to the society upon condition that it would provide for him the remainder of his days. Some small houses were added to the tenement and the group of buildings constituted the friends' almshouse. In 1729 other buildings were erected, standing until 1841, and the benefits of the institution correspondingly extended. Each family was separately lodged, and those having trades were expected to follow them, thereby lessening the expense of their support.<sup>1</sup> This institution, it will be noted, was very similar to the English almshouse, which it probably copied, and in administration quite unlike the almshouses of the United States.

The original almshouse of the municipality itself was not completed until 1731. This was not, as some suppose, the first public almshouse erected in this country, the one in Boston having been opened nearly, if not quite, seventy years earlier. It was located down town, on a green meadow, it is said, with its principal gate on Spruce street, and an entrance through a stile on Third street. The erection of this almshouse was apparently the result of a petition made to the assembly in 1729 by the overseers of the poor, which had the active approval and support of other city officials.

This almshouse contained the sick and insane as well as the poor, having 220 inmates in 1765, and continued in use until the second almshouse was erected on the society grounds, between Spruce and Pine and Tenth and Eleventh streets. About this latter institution a material part of Longfellow's romance of "Evan-

<sup>1</sup> "History and reminiscences of the Philadelphia almshouse and Philadelphia hospital."

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line" is supposed to be woven. The buildings, which were opened in 1767, were laid out in the form of an L, one hundred and eighty by forty feet, two stories in height, and joined by a turret four stories high and thirty feet square. A house of employment was also erected on these grounds, running south from Spruce street along Eleventh street, and was also in the shape of an L, so that the entire range of buildings enclosed the three sides of the square.

The large increase in the number of dependents made it again necessary to enlarge the accommodations to receive them. In 1810 an effort was made to remove the almshouse to a farm, but it was not until the passage of the act of March 5, 1828, that authority was given to build accommodations suitable for an almshouse, hospital, and other buildings "on a site not exceeding two miles from Broad and Market streets." This act provided for the election of "commissioners for the erection of buildings for the accommodation of the poor." One hundred and eighty-seven acres of land belonging to the Hamilton estate were finally purchased, work was commenced on the buildings, and the corner-stone of the present Blockley almshouse, the third to be erected by the city, was laid May 26, 1830. In 1832 the unfinished buildings were temporarily occupied during the cholera epidemic. In 1834, the second almshouse having then a population of 1,081, the transfer was made to the present institution.

The four main buildings of the almshouse and hospital surround a square, leaving an open space at the end of the buildings. They are built of stone, are three stories high, and have dormer windows. The

front or main building is five hundred and twenty-one feet long by sixty feet in width. In the centre is a portico, ninety feet front, supported by eight columns in the Tuscan order, with wings extending from both sides. The four buildings are at right angles to each other and the space enclosed is about seven hundred by five hundred feet. The almshouse was built to accommodate 4,000 persons and is said to have cost \$900,000. One of the buildings is occupied by male paupers, one by insane patients, one and half of another by hospital patients, and the remaining half by female paupers. In connection with these buildings are many minor buildings necessary to the proper administration of the institution.

As the law provides that children more than two years of age shall not be kept in almshouses longer than sixty days, unless under medical treatment, it is said that "there are only from sixty to eighty children in the institution" at a time—which, of course, is a great deal too many.

The Philadelphia almshouse is subject to the visitation of the Pennsylvania board of public charities, whose representatives have, in recent years, reported upon its conditions, in part, as follows:

"The out-wards were found to be clean and in good sanitary condition. The inmates were comfortably clothed, and the food furnished them seemed to be good and wholesome, and in sufficient quantity. The men and women in these wards are not hospital patients, but they are unable, for the most part, on account of advanced age and broken health, to render much assistance in work about the premises. Hence the superintendent is obliged to draw a

large force of able-bodied men from the house of correction to do the rough work of the institution. The hospitals and other institutions of the state similar in character to the Philadelphia almshouse have been visited and inspected by the board of public charities, and no one of them is in any way better fitted for the care of patients than the buildings of this institution."<sup>1</sup> This testimony speaks well for the forethought of those who planned and built the almshouse over sixty years before. "The poorhouse of a large city is an interesting study. To it the poor and unfortunate of every class necessarily gravitate. To describe the institution in Philadelphia, with its three thousand inmates and more, would of itself take a volume. This is impossible, and we must here simply record that the same admirable order prevailed which we have heretofore commented upon. Every department gave evidence of thorough and competent oversight. No place was neglected and a spirit of contentment which was remarkable prevailed."<sup>2</sup>

"No less than 3,285 inmates were accommodated in this institution at the time of this visit. It is divided into four sections: the insane department, with 1,319 inmates; the hospital department, with 1,129 inmates; the out-wards or pauper department, with 1,453 inmates, and the children's department with 24 inmates. It requires great executive ability properly to manage such an institution. It is in excellent condition throughout."<sup>3</sup>

This is very flattering testimony, but the thought arises, "What would

the Boston committees of 1892 and 1894 have reported about this institution had they inspected it with the care and thoroughness that were brought to bear on the pauper institutions of their own city?" The writer is bound to admit that in the absence of such a scrutiny and report, no safe comparison can be made between the institutions of the two cities. It is quite easy to believe, however, that the facilities of the Philadelphia institution are much superior to those of Boston, making administration and supervision a much easier task and readily paving the way for better results.

A very interesting account of the establishment of the first public almshouse in the city of New York is contained in "an account of Bellevue hospital," published by the society of the alumni of that institution in 1893.

"In the days of the city of New Amsterdam," we are told, "what poor there were were maintained at the expense and under the care of the church. The fund for their support was collected by voluntary contributions to the poor boxes and distributed by the officers of the church, the needy being assisted in their own houses, and such as had no homes being provided with a shelter in a house hired for the purpose. This house," it is said, "was for a long time located on the west side of Broad street, just north of Beaver street." Besides this poor house the city was at this time provided with

<sup>1</sup> Twenty-sixth annual report of the board of commissioners of public charities of Pennsylvania, for 1895.

<sup>2</sup> Twenty-seventh annual report, for 1896.

<sup>3</sup> Twenty-eighth annual report, for 1897.



a hospital, opened December 20, 1658, when the city had a population of but 1,000. In 1697, the population having increased to between 4,000 and 5,000 people and the demand for relief being great, it is recorded that Mayor de Peyster was negotiating for a house to be used as a refuge for the poor. In 1714, the distress among the poor being great, a proposition was made to build a poorhouse. A committee of the common council was appointed, but nothing came of the movement at that time.

The census of 1731 showed 1,400 houses and a population of 8,628. Many were poor and there was a large class of vagabonds and idle beggars. The poor wandered about begging or were boarded at public expense, and, because of the inadequate police, criminals were allowed much latitude. This not only fostered crime, but sickness as well, and in 1731 the city suffered its third epidemic. Small-pox raged and was very fatal. It became clearly apparent that some remedy must be devised to meet these serious conditions. Therefore, on November 15, 1734, in the mayoralty of Mr. Robert Lutting, as the account continues, the common council appointed a committee to inquire where a house suitable to be used as a workhouse might be purchased. This committee reported, December 20, 1734, in favor of the erection of a building on vacant lands belonging to the city commonly called the "vineyard." The building thus erected was called the "publick workhouse and house of correction of the city of New York," and it was located on the site of the present city hall, the walls being of stone. The building was begun in 1735, the committee agree-

ing with one John Roomer for carpenter work and materials at a cost of £80 and fifty gallons of rum, the corporation "to be at charge for liquor at laying the beams and raising the roof." The building was ready for occupancy early in 1736. It was fifty-six feet long and twenty-four feet wide, two stories high, with a commodious cellar. A picture of this institution may be seen in this account of Bellevue hospital, page five, and also in Lamb's history of New York, volume one, page 559, where it is said to have been but forty-six feet long. Several additions appear to have been made to the structure, which may account for the difference in the accounts of its size. The first mentioned account says that in the cellar on the east side were rooms for those put at hard labor and for weaving; in the middle was a store room for provisions, and on the west a strong room or cage for the refractory, besides rooms for spinning and carding. On the first floor, to the east, was the general dining room, upstairs were rooms for the keeper and his family, and on the west the room set apart exclusively for the infirmary.

The first superintendent was John Sebring, appointed March 31, 1736, his title being "keeper of the house of correction and master of the workhouse and poorhouse;" his salary was £30 a year with board and lodging for himself and family, with such perquisites as could be obtained by boarding and whipping refractory slaves at current rates.

The first medical officer was Dr. John Van Buren, who had a salary of £100 a year and furnished his own physic. He served until 1765, and was succeeded, it is said, by his son Beekman, who held the position

at the outbreak of the revolution. Under the roof of this institution was confined a motley crowd of unfortunates, the insane, the unruly, the poor, the aged, and the infirm. In 1746 extensive changes were made, the cost of which, including that at the watchhouse, amounted to £620. In 1776, when the British were about to enter the city, the inmates were transferred first to Westchester and afterwards to Poughkeepsie, under the charge of Superintendent John Forbes. The house in the city then came under the care of another superintendent, who was permitted to draw "king's rations" for the poor and the refractory under his care.

After the evacuation by the British in 1783, the poor returned from Poughkeepsie, and the accommodations were increased by the addition of extensions. The census of the institution taken November 14, 1785, shows a total of 301; 115 of them being males.

This almshouse was occupied until 1796. Two years prior, however, steps had been taken to build a new almshouse, the old one being then inadequate to meet the demands upon it. To carry out this purpose, the common council secured permission from the legislature to raise £10,000 by means of a lottery. The site selected was on the north side of Chambers street, immediately in the rear of the old building.

This second almshouse was occupied on May 20, 1796, the number of inmates being 622; 102 only being native born. This institution was two hundred and sixty feet long, forty-four feet wide, and three stories in height, with two projections in front, fifteen by thirty feet. It was surrounded, the account says, by open courts and gardens.

On April 29, 1816, the new almshouse having become unequal to the demands upon it, the third almshouse was opened, with appropriate ceremonies, at Bellevue, Twenty-sixth street, near the East river, where the hospital known by that name now stands. This structure was built after the designs of Alderman William Hogland, who received a prize of \$100 offered by the common council for the most acceptable plans. The building consisted of the almshouse itself, now the home of Bellevue hospital, and two hospital pavilions. In the rear of the almshouse, west of the present line of First avenue, were the workshop for the male paupers and women prisoners, and the penitentiary. The total cost of the buildings was about \$425,000.

The history of this almshouse and its auxiliary institutions is an interesting one, but can only briefly be referred to here. In its early days it was several times visited by epidemics, among them being typhus fever in 1818, 1825, and 1827. The second attack was so malignant and the results so serious, largely because of inadequate resources, that a committee was appointed to investigate. This committee, which consisted of Drs. Joseph Bailey, Joseph M. Smith, and Isaac Wood, made a most unfavorable report. Some improvements in the management followed, but the conditions continued far from satisfactory, owing, doubtless, largely to a lack of intelligent public interest in the care of the poor.

In November, 1826, there were 1,366 inmates in the almshouse, 184 in the hospital (82 being insane), and 336 in the penitentiary. The number of physicians assigned to their care was but three, and the nurses in the hospital were prisoners

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detailed from the penitentiary. The care received by the patients can well be imagined. These were the days of the historic "black bottle," and its potent draught. In 1832, Asiatic cholera fiercely attacked the city, and there were six hundred deaths in Bellevue, over one-sixth of all the victims in the city. New York had then a population of about 200,000.

The "account of Bellevue hospital," from which most of this information is taken, says: "Bellevue now passed into the darkest period of her history. She was seized by one of the arms of the political octopus, and remained for fifteen years in its grasp. It was accounted one of the spoils of office—a principle injurious under ordinary conditions, but particularly malignant when involving a hospital. The mortality during all this period was at an average of twenty per cent."

In 1836, the penitentiary was removed to Blackwell's island, which had been purchased by the city in 1828 from the Blackwell family for \$32,000.

In 1837, conditions had become so bad that the common council caused another investigation to be made, through a committee of its members. The female part of the almshouse was found in good condition, affording a marked contrast to other parts of the institution. The report stated that there was "evidence of neglect of the public interest and want of a proper regard to the subjects of misfortune. Complaints of poor and scanty provisions and of unavailing applications for relief were numerous and voluntary. Many were without shirts and destitute of sheets and blankets, and such bedding as there was, was not clean. In the building assigned to colored

subjects was an exhibition of misery and its concomitants, never witnessed by your commissioners nor in any public receptacle for even the most abandoned dregs of human society. Here were scenes of neglect and filth; of putrefaction and vermin. Of system and subordination there was none. The same apparel and the same bedding had been alternately used by the sick and dying, the convalescent, and those in health, and that for a long period. The situation in one room was such as would have created contagion as the warm season came on; the air seemed to carry poison with every breath."

Dr. Benjamin Ogden, formerly in charge of the institution, was induced to return to reorganize it. In his report he says that the night before his arrival eight nurses and servants had run away, leaving the sick to care for themselves. "The whole concern," Dr. Ogden's report continues, "was filled with typhus from top to bottom. They (the patients) were lying in their filthy blankets, destitute of sheets and pillow-cases, and in some chronic cases they had not had a change for three months. Requisition had been made by my predecessor again and again, but no notice had been taken of it."

It is needless to say that all this happened long before the days of the visitations of the state board of charities and the state charities aid association, the purposes of which are doubtless not comprehended by many who are unacquainted with the horrors the committee describes, and unfamiliar with the fact that history of this kind is sure to repeat itself sooner or later unless prevented by the watchfulness of public officials or private citizens who are independ-

ent of the management of the institutions.

In 1847, the census of the almshouse proper was 1,500, and during that year there was another epidemic of typhus which carried off a large number of inmates. In 1848, the almshouse was removed to its present location on Blackwell's island, leaving to Bellevue hospital the main building that institution occupies to-day.

The forms of management over the almshouse have, from beginning to end, been numerous. During a long period after removal to Blackwell's island, the public charitable and the correctional institutions of the city were managed by a board of three commissioners, known as the commissioners of charities and correction. This system, however, proved faulty, and in 1895, largely through the efforts of the state charities aid association and other philanthropic forces, the department was divided by act of legislature, chapter 912, of the laws of 1895, into a department of public charities and a department of correction, the former having charge of the almshouse and public hospitals, and the latter of the correctional institutions of the city.

This division was continued by the charter of 1897 incorporating the greater city of New York, and the public charitable institutions of the city are now managed by a board of three commissioners, known as the board of commissioners of public charities. For purposes of administration, the city is divided into three districts, one composed of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, another of the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens, and the third of the borough of Richmond. The public

charitable institutions of each district are under the charge of a single commissioner, the commissioner of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx being the president of the board.

These institutions are regularly and thoroughly inspected by the inspectors of the state board of charities, and visited by the representatives of the state charities aid association. Conditions are for the most part good, and serious abuses do not as a rule long remain undiscovered and uncorrected.

The almshouse on Blackwell's island has about thirty-five buildings, large and small, in its group. There are separate buildings for men and women, an asylum for the blind, and a hospital for incurables. The older buildings are of stone taken from the island quarries, and the newer ones of brick. The last printed report of inspection of the almshouse, made in 1899 by the inspector of the state board of charities, says of this institution: "The main buildings for men and women are alike, facing north and south and having east and west wings. These wings have wide, roomy piazzas for each story, and the several dormitories are reached by the outside stairways leading to these piazzas. The dormitories run across the buildings, and thus the piazzas are at each end of the wards, and with their stairways would serve as fire escapes in case of need. There are no stairways inside the buildings, nor halls, as the piazzas serve to provide ready access to the different dormitories. These dormitories were remarkably clean, and it was a great pleasure to find beds, floors, walls, ceilings, casings, and windows perfectly free from dirt. The only place in all

these great buildings which showed a sign of removable stain, was on the wall where the ventilators discharged air which carried with it the carbon of soft-coal smoke, when the wind drove the smoke toward the fans." On the subject of classification, the report says: "An attempt is made to classify the inmates, but this attempt is based on physical condition alone; thus, the blind, and the epileptic, and the incurables have their pavilions. But with so many wards, a more extensive system of classification is possible, and it is hoped that in time an experiment, based on both moral and physical qualifications, may be tried."

The needs of the almshouse are reported to be steel ceilings throughout, changes in the plumbing, a nurses' home, an electric light plant, and better paid help. The total capacity of the institution is 2,732, and on December 18, 1899, when the census was taken by the inspector, there were 2,018 inmates in the institution, 948 being men and 1,070 women, a reduction of 628 from the census of the previous year.<sup>1</sup>

The very size of these great alms-

house institutions of Boston, Philadelphia, and New York makes radical and wholesale reforms in their administration exceedingly difficult of accomplishment. The capital invested in the buildings, their relative uselessness for other purposes, and the cost of establishing a new system, even though it would clearly prove economical in the end, all help to prevent the making of changes that are everywhere recognized as most desirable. Another potent factor is the tendency to criticise even reasonable expenditures for the care of the poor, and a lack of interest on the part of the public generally. Worse than all, perhaps, the frequent changes in the personnel of the service, through politics or other causes, too often prevent that continuity of intelligent effort which is more necessary to the accomplishment of great results in the administration of charities than in almost any other difficult undertaking of a public nature.

<sup>1</sup> Report of the state board of charities, New York, to legislature of 1900.

## PREVENTIVE WORK.<sup>1</sup>

(AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.)

BY JOSEPH LEE.

Rent  
Collecting.

Very little of this has been done in this country.

In New York, Miss Louise T. Caldwell is doing work upon the plan of Miss Octavia Hill. She seeks rather the lower than the better class of houses and of tenants; no references being required of the latter. Miss Caldwell has been at work three years; she has one paid assistant, and has in her charge eight or ten houses containing, perhaps, one hundred and fifty families. The houses are put into proper order, special attention being paid to plumbing; in one case the yards of two houses are thrown together

so as to make a playground at the back for the children. The houses have usually been full, and the tenants have improved greatly in regularity. The net return has been about four and one-half per cent, and Miss Caldwell could do better if she chose to take houses that were in better order.

Mrs. R. C. Lincoln has done similar work in Boston, and was, I think, the first to undertake such work in this country.<sup>2</sup>

Model  
Tenements.

Model tenements<sup>3</sup> are the most advertised of all our philanthropies, and it seems unnecessary to include

Village improvement.  
Factory villages.

### iv. The children :

For little children :  
Vacation schools.  
Summer playgrounds.  
Outings.

For larger boys and girls :  
Baths.  
Gymnasiums.  
Playgrounds.  
Boys' clubs.  
Trade education.

For all the children :  
School improvement.

### v. Grown people :

Parks.  
Social resources.  
Educational provisions.  
Modifying of industrial conditions.

<sup>1</sup> Synopsis of paper :

#### i. Before 1860 :

Libraries.  
Lowell, as a pioneer manufacturing town.

#### ii. Savings and loans :

Collection.  
Stamp savings.  
School savings.  
Savings banks.  
Building and loan associations.  
Philanthropic loans.

#### iii. The home :

Building laws.  
Rent collection.  
Model tenements.  
Model lodging houses.  
Separate homes, in factory villages and otherwise.  
The city or town as site of the home :  
City sanitation and construction.

<sup>2</sup> "Hoarding of the poor in American cities," published by the American economic association. Report viii, Nos. 2 and 3, pp. 65-6. See other experiments described, pp. 64-7.

<sup>3</sup> The following facts are gathered chiefly from the report of the Massachusetts sanitary commission for 1850; from the eighth special report of the commissioner of labor, 1895, by Dr. E. R. L. Gould; from the Boston directory of charities; and from reports.



any extended discussion of their methods or the place they are intended to fill. They do not attempt to reach the lowest class of our tenement-house population. Their rule requiring the prompt payment of rent, frequently in advance, allowing arrears (beyond a very limited period, usually one week), only in case of well-known and desirable tenants, and their other rules enforcing orderly and decent behavior, make them what they are intended to be—the refuge of the better class. The proper construction and conduct of a model tenement is a matter of infinite detail. For an adequate account of what has been done, see the eighth special report of the United States commissioner of labor, 1895, pages 177 and following. The leading aims may be said to be privacy, safety (from disease and fire), comfort, possibility of cleanliness, and a reasonable rent.

The difference between rent collecting and model tenement house work may be illustrated by a remark Miss Hill once made to the writer: "I find it is easy enough to raise the house, but if you raise it too rapidly the tenants fall out through the bottom." The rent collector who aims to raise a low class of tenants finds that one must begin very gradually. A sensitive mind, Miss Hill pointed out, may receive a serious shock from the unexpected washing of a floor, to say nothing of substituting a pane of glass for

the old hat which had formerly served the same purpose, and when it comes to such extremes as painting and white-washing, a man of settled habits may well feel that it is time for him to be jogging.

Some of the organizations which supply model tenements, however, also own and manage old houses on improved methods similar to Miss Hill's;<sup>1</sup> and in the model tenements themselves they apply, in their relations with the tenants, some of the same methods.

There were, from 1844 to 1848, some slight beginnings in the model tenement direction in Boston and Salem.<sup>2</sup>

In 1845 the New York association for improving the condition of the poor made plans for a model building, and in 1854 it organized a company which erected a building, "which unfortunately was not model in many respects, and later became one of the worst tenement houses the city has ever seen."<sup>3</sup>

The next practical step in this subject seems to have been deferred until 1871, when, as a result of the efforts of Dr. Henry P. Bowditch, the Boston co-operative building company was organized. It has built fifty-eight houses and owns besides about a dozen old houses. Its total number of rooms is 960. In the newer houses special attention is given to providing tenements of one or two rooms. Its newest enterprise, the Harrison ave-

<sup>1</sup> E. g., coöperative building company of Boston.

<sup>2</sup> See report of Massachusetts sanitary commission of 1850, p. 207.

<sup>3</sup> Lawrence Veiller in report on tenement-house reform to the New York tenement-house commission of 1900, p. 8.

nue estate, was built on in 1892. The buildings are three stories or thirty feet high, and are described as being "cottage flats" rather than tenement houses. They occupy sixty-five per cent of the lot and are made around a hollow square, 100 by 80 feet, with trees, grass, seats, and a playground in the middle. They are not wholly fire-proof, but have good egress. They are not wholly "self-contained." Every room opens to the outer air. Each apartment has water and a place for a stove. The rents vary from \$2.25 for a two-room tenement to \$3.50 for a four-room tenement. The company's east Canton street estate is designed for a poorer class of tenants, but shows a remarkable percentage of long residence. About one-half of the families who were there in 1895 had been there for periods varying from five to twenty-five years.

The company pays six per cent annually, has set aside a fund for repairs, and had in 1895 a total reserve fund of \$50,229 on a capital of \$219,000. It is carried on mostly by women, and all the estates are in charge of women agents.<sup>1</sup>

The most famous model tenement enterprises in America are the Home, Tower, and Riverside buildings, erected respectively in 1877, 1878, and 1890, by Alfred T. White, of Brooklyn. These buildings contain 519 apartments, 1,395 rooms. Rents range from \$1 to \$3.60 a week, and are about the same per floor space as elsewhere in the vicin-

ity. The buildings, covering about fifty per cent of the lot, are built around three sides of a square, open to the south. They are six stories (sixty feet) high, are almost absolutely fireproof, and have excellent means of egress. The rooms are mostly fifteen to eighteen feet long by seven to ten feet wide. Every apartment not only opens outdoors, but has a through draft, three-room apartments by means of their own doors and windows and two-room apartments through their doors and windows and the hall-ways. The apartments are "self-contained;" rooms are supplied with water, a clothes press with shelf and hooks, a place for a stove, and a coal-box, holding a quarter of a ton. There are no garbage receptacles and all garbage must be burned. There are a closet and shelves in each kitchen to serve as a pantry. There are dumb waiters for raising fuel and provisions, ash shoots, regularly disinfected in warm weather, gas on the stairs and in the hallways, and bath rooms in the cellar. There is a place to play, and children can also play in the cellar or covered verandas when it rains. There is a band of eight pieces for two hours on Saturday afternoons in summer. The Home building has a reading-room for its own tenants and for those of the Tower building and the general public, which takes daily papers and weekly and monthly magazines, and also has a circulating library of 334 novels. The buildings have open stairways, but the tenants

<sup>1</sup> For an account of other enterprises in New York and Boston, see United States report above cited.

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do not seem to object. The old buildings pay ten per cent, the new one five to six per cent, the difference being due to the great increase in the cost of labor between 1878, when bricklayers charged \$2.50 for ten hours' work, and 1890, when they charged \$4 for eight hours' work.

The company is very liberal in making repairs, and there is very little loss from unoccupied tenements. Rents are paid weekly and in advance.

**City and  
Suburban  
Homes Co.**

The most prominent model building association in the country at the present time is the city and suburban homes company of New York. The work of this company has been so often described that I need not repeat at length. The company was organized in 1896. Its model tenement work shows all the modern improvements, with slight variations from Mr. White's buildings. The buildings contain tubs, shower-baths, kindergartens, and deafened partitions, and pay five per cent besides laying up a surplus of a little over one per cent, an amount deemed sufficient for a depreciation fund. There is a special building for women on Sixty-ninth street, which has been very successful and affords, besides a kindergarten, evening classes for young working women, cooking classes, and practical talks for girls.

The rent collecting is done by women in accordance with the best modern methods, one of the rent

collectors having studied under Miss Octavia Hill.

**Only an  
Opportunity.**

This matter of the instrumentality and method of communication between landlord and tenant is not a minor or unimportant consideration. The model tenement should not be regarded as an achievement, but rather as an opportunity. When we have read all that can be easily set down about one of these buildings we still remain in doubt whether it is so conducted by its owners and managers, and so regarded by the tenants, that the latter may be said to have acquired homes in it or only to have found locations—cells or pigeon-holes—where homes might, under favorable circumstances, be built.<sup>1</sup>

The length of tenancy is perhaps a fairly good test on this subject, and its application to our model tenements seems to indicate success. I have cited the case of the Boston co-operative building company. In Mr. White's buildings the tenancies are not often longer than three years,<sup>2</sup> but the average stay there has become shortened owing to the custom which the tenants have acquired of going to the country for the summer. In the buildings of the tenement-house building company, New York, "the average term of occupancy during the first three years was found to be thirteen months, or more than double the average period of tenement-houses, which is not more than six months."<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> One recalls the remark of the English artisan, made, I think, to a parliamentary commission, the bluntness of which may be excused by the importance of the warning conveyed: "Gentlemen seem to think that any place with a water-closet in it is a home."

<sup>2</sup> Eighth special report commissioner of labor, p. 183.

<sup>3</sup> Same. p. 199.

The last annual report of the city and suburban homes company presents a complete and interesting table showing length of tenancy. Seventeen per cent of their families had been in residence since the opening of their first building, a period of fourteen months. Forty-two and one-half per cent had lived there a year or more, and sixty-one per cent eight months or more. Changes were mostly to secure better employment or to be nearer employment. Only three families had moved because of discontent.

One special and vitally important effort made by the city and suburban homes company is to interest a new class of investors. The shares are \$10 each, and the majority of the shareholders are said to be working men. It is hoped, now that the safety of such investment has been demonstrated, that a new and large class of capitalists will be attracted, and that in this way the work may be extended so as to really perform an appreciable service as a method of meeting the housing problem.

At present it must be said of the model tenement house that, although its results are excellent so far as they go, yet as compared with the entire problem they are infinitesimal. The total number of apartments in model tenements in greater New York is about 1,500. Allowing four people to an apartment this gives about 6,000 tenants, or about three-tenths of one per cent of the tenement-house population.

Future  
Development.

Model tenement house work ought not, indeed, to be judged by its

present achievements. What these pioneers have done and are doing is to establish the fact that decent tenement-houses can be made a paying investment. When once this is proved to the satisfaction of the investing public the problem will solve itself and the good conditions which now affect but a small fraction of the class aimed at will be extended so as to reach the great majority.

The demonstration has already been completed by Mr. White and others in regard to the large capitalist who has ability in this direction. It has been carried a step further by this demonstration from the city and suburban homes company, that the small shareholder can find safety with a reasonable return in such investments. One more step, and a very important one, remains to be taken, namely, to demonstrate that separate ownership of small tenement-houses can be made compatible with good returns and with proper conditions as to light and air. To explain the problem involved in making this last demonstration I must first state briefly the conclusions that have been reached in regard to the proper shape of tenement-houses.

The Virtues  
of the Square.

The great lesson as to ground plan which has so far been taught by the builders and designers of model tenements is the necessity, for beneficent and economic building, of crossing the arbitrary line which the builders and investors of New York have made, dividing the city blocks into lots twenty-five feet wide.

It is a mathematical truth that the

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<sup>1</sup> See  
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square is the rectangular figure with the largest area in proportion to the length of its sides. An important application of this truth is that the square building, and for the same reason the square interior court, has the greatest area in proportion to the length of its walls and therefore in proportion to the expense of building. Further, it is a fact easily demonstrated that the amount of light obtained from a rectangular court of a given area increases as its shape approaches the square. And, finally, it is an important truth that light and air space is more valuable when concentrated than when taken in homeopathic doses—so that a single open court produces greater results than the same amount of area punched into a block in the form of small wells.

A remarkable application of these mathematical principles is contained in an article by Mr. Ernest Flagg in "the poor in great cities."<sup>1</sup> He has taken a piece of land 100 feet square and has compared the use of it as a unit upon a plan of his own with the use of it for four separate buildings twenty-five feet wide. Among the advantages of the former plan over the other Mr. Flagg shows that, whereas the rentable area is practically the same in both, the four separate houses require twenty-one per cent more building material than is called for by the other plan; that whereas the square plan uses only fifteen per cent of the whole area for entries and other non-paying uses the four separate buildings use nearly twenty-four per

cent for such purposes; and that the space left open for light is nearly 1,000 square feet (or nearly fifty per cent) greater in the square plan than in the other, besides being a better shape.

Similar demonstrations are made by every model tenement house.

These demonstrations have been conclusive as regards the large investors, have been followed by them, and are a main cause of their success. The next problem is, as I have said, how to make it possible for an important class of small investors to take advantage of the same economic and structural principles.

The persistence of the twenty-five foot lot appears to be due to the existence of a large number of persons who desire to own buildings, managing them, often living in them, themselves and thus securing a much larger return than they could hope to receive as stockholders in a company. The trouble is not with the ability of the builders to use a larger unit, for Mr. Lawrence Veiller has shown that about forty-five per cent. of the houses of the prevalent type, twenty-five feet wide, are built in blocks of two or more at a time. The reason why these builders divide their buildings up into these narrow sections is in order that they may be able to sell them to the investor who cannot afford to buy a larger slice. In order to make it possible for the investor of the class described to buy tenement-houses built upon proper plans it is necessary to devise

Reaching the  
Small Investor,

<sup>1</sup> See especially pp. 383 and following. Mr. Flagg is the architect afterwards employed by the city and suburban homes company.

some way in which buildings can be built upon a common plan—around, say, a central court—and yet may be sold in sections. The difficulty lies in reconciling the buyer to the restrictions necessarily placed upon each section in order to preserve the advantages of the common design.

**An Eastern Problem.**

The above described are the leading examples of model tenements in this country. A model tenement house has recently been erected in Chicago, but I believe that is the only other American city besides New York and Boston that has one. The problem is not nearly so pressing in the western cities, because these have seen and secured the benefits of rapid transit.

The peculiar difficulties of New York and the crowding of that city, which far exceeds that of any other place in the world,<sup>1</sup> are usually attributed to its geographical position; but other cities are situated on rivers, and the inhabitants do not find it impossible to cross them. The peculiarity of the situation in New York is that the political influence of the elevated railroad has been sufficient to postpone the introduction of the electric system for street-car traffic ten years after it was in general use elsewhere and to postpone to a similar extent the bridging and tunneling of the North and East rivers.

**Model Lodging Houses.**

There have, I suppose, always been houses which were perfectly self-sup-

porting (and which, therefore, would come under the head of prevention rather than charity) where girls could get a lodging in a more or less pronounced family atmosphere and under some kind of semi-parental oversight. The young women's christian associations and other religious bodies have been especially active in providing such homes.<sup>2</sup> Other examples are in the careful supervision of lodging houses for factory girls in towns like Lowell and Waltham as above described.

In 1893 Mr. Eugene Levering, of Baltimore, built what "is, in reality, a workman's residential club where isolated sleeping apartments may be hired by the night or by the week," with baths, smoking, reading and game rooms, holding eighty lodgers at from fifteen to thirty cents a night.<sup>3</sup>

**The Mills Hotels.**

The great examples at the present time of the philanthropic lodging house are the Mills hotels, recently built on the lower east side of New York. The one on Bleeker street accommodates 1,554 lodgers, "which is said to be more than twelve per cent of the capacity of all the cheap lodging houses in the city." The price is the same as that for a cot in a Bowery barracks, while the bed provided is the same as that used in the Waldorf-Astoria hotel. Every man has a separate room with window opening outdoors or on the large central glassed-over court. There are baths, a reading room, a

<sup>1</sup> There were sixty-six acres on the east side in New York in 1894 which had 986.04 persons to the acre,—“now doubtless increased to well over 1,000.”—*Review of Reviews*, December, 1896, p. 695.

<sup>2</sup> For an account of such homes for young women see the *REVIEW*, July, 1899, pp. 215 and following: see also *Municipal Affairs*, March, 1899, pp. 95 and following.

<sup>3</sup> United States commissioner of labor, special report, 1895, pp. 401-2.



library, a laundry where men may wash their own clothes, and a drying room. The central court is used for smoking, loafing, and games. One may see a free-and-easy crowd of idlers there at any time in the day. A good dinner can be got for fifteen cents in the restaurant. The heating and lighting is good. The hotel has been a success as regards patronage, crowds being frequently turned away. One result of starting it has been that all the Bowery lodging houses, except the ten cents, have put in improvements.

A woman's hotel company is now being formed in New York. The cost is expected to be \$800,000; the accommodation to be for 500 women.<sup>1</sup>

Applications of the Mills hotel idea are to be found in Worcester and Providence, each with the addition of work and accommodation for tramps.<sup>2</sup>

Besides the legal provisions for lodging houses which I have cited under the head of tenement-house legislation there are now beginning to be special statutes for their better management, based upon a recognition of the fact that they are largely the resort of tramps and, in many cases, of criminals also. There is, for instance, a law for Boston which provides that every lodging house where twenty-five cents or less is charged shall have a license from the board of police, which license shall not be granted without a statement

from the inspector of buildings that there is proper means of egress in case of fire nor without a statement from the board of health that the sanitary arrangements and ventilation are sufficient. Such houses may be entered at any time by the health or police departments.<sup>3</sup> The regulations of the board of health are nineteen in number, and include the following: "No person who is not clean will be allowed to retire without a bath."

The objection is made against the model lodging house that it encourages men to live purely selfish, isolated lives without duties or organized relation to society. On the other hand it is urged that there are many young men who are coming to the city to work and that the only alternative is that they should fall among sharks. And as regards those who may be classed as the unfit, it may be a question whether marriage would not be, for the race, an expensive way of trying to civilize them.

Philanthropic provision for a class of people who can pay for something better than life in a tenement-house is made by philanthropic agencies which enable people to buy small houses, whether in the suburbs or in factory towns.<sup>4</sup> These houses are usually grouped together into what is often called a model village.

The origin of the American model

<sup>1</sup> *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1899, p. 25.

<sup>2</sup> For other model lodging houses see *Municipal Affairs*, March, 1899, pp. 103 and ff.

<sup>3</sup> Chapter 414 of 1894.

<sup>4</sup> Compare building and loan associations and other savings and loan philanthropies.

village must be traced back to such early manufacturing towns as Waltham and Lowell. There are, in every manufacturing region in the United States, numbers of mills and factories which have sprung up where there is good water power and where there was not previously any considerable town. The manufacturers, therefore, have been obliged to build houses for their people, and I suppose in most cases they have been guided not wholly by pecuniary considerations in the provision they have made. There is at all events a very long list of such places in which manufacturers have done a greater or less amount for the improvement of their employés.

Suburban houses are also provided without connection with manufacturing business. One of the pioneers in this direction was Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, who began building about 1875, and ten years afterwards erected forty-five small dwellings upon a piece of land in the suburbs, each house being adapted to a single family, and having from four to six rooms besides a bath-room containing hot and cold water. The price of these houses ranged from \$2,000 to \$3,500, and the payments, including interest, taxes, etc., were from \$130 to \$214 a year; the tenant becoming full owner in twelve years. A total

of 101 houses had been built and sold by October, 1890; since which time, Mr. Paine's work in this direction has been chiefly through the workingmen's building association, founded by him.

Since this beginning by Mr. Paine, much other similar work has been done.<sup>1</sup>

#### A Typical Case.

I will take as a type of present methods in the business of providing small houses outside the city, whether by manufacturers or others, the work of the city and suburban homes company of New York, whose tenement houses have been described above.

This company is building up a settlement called Homewood, comprising about 530 city lots in Brooklyn—a five-cent fare, and about fifty minutes distance, from the city hall of New York. It has macadamized streets, gutters, curbs, sewers, a sewage disposal plant designed by the late Colonel Waring, sidewalks, trees, and hedges. The houses have a brick basement and a superstructure of wood and stucco of a sort of Stratford-on-Avon aspect. A large number of picturesque designs are furnished by the company, from which clients are allowed to choose. Special attention has been paid to plumbing. Every house has a porcelain-lined bath-tub.

The company will not sell land without a house. It requires the

<sup>1</sup> For a detailed account of such work, whether carried on in connection with manufacturing or otherwise, see eighth special report of the United States commissioner of labor, 1895, pages 319-98. See, especially, for an account of the methods and terms by which operatives may be encouraged and enabled to own their own homes by a truly philanthropic, and at the same time, successful and business-like employer, the account of S. D. Warren & Co., on pages 321 and following. See, also, N. P. Gilman's book, "A dividend to labor;" *Bulletin of Department of Labor*, November, 1900; and other authorities cited under *factory villages*, below.

purchaser to assign a good life insurance policy to the company. Having control of the entire tract, it is enabled to insure desirable surroundings and thus increase the value of the land to the tenant. Restrictions are placed against saloons until 1996; against factories and workshops, against all except private stables, against tenement-houses and flat-roofed buildings, until 1925. It is a rule of the company not to purchase land until the location has been approved by its clients, of whom it had, when the present site was bought, a waiting list of about 400 applicants.

Twenty years are allowed for paying for a house, payment being made in uniform monthly sums, which include interest at six per cent and payment on the life insurance policies mentioned above. A \$2,000 house can be paid for, not including taxes or repairs, in fifteen years at about \$16.60 a month; in twenty years at about \$14.50 a month; approximately the monthly rent for similar accommodation in a tenement-house region. The purchaser can pay off earlier if he chooses. About 100 families are now living in Homewood, and there is room for about three hundred more houses.

The City  
as the Site of  
the Home.

The man who goes to city hall and the state house and lobbies for a rational street plan and street management, with some regard to the needs of rapid radial transit, does more to provide good homes than all the

other agencies put together, both by lessening congestion in the crowded districts and by bringing the man to the suburban home. If the man can get there the home will find itself. But this agitator is as yet a rare bird, or at least is rarely to be classified as belonging, in his intention, to the philanthropic species.

What has been done to make the city a proper location for human habitations has been, with the exception of parks and open spaces, which will be dealt with later, almost wholly a matter of sanitation, and has been directed especially to the securing of better food and water supplies and to the proper disposal of drainage.<sup>1</sup>

I will cite only one fact as significant of the place which America is beginning to take in these matters; namely, that the Massachusetts board of health had in 1890 already made elaborate investigations of the effect of sand and gravel filters which anticipated the famous experiments in Hamburg, and which, without the quickening stimulus of a cholera visitation, resulted in the introduction of such filters for the city of Lawrence, contemporaneously with their introduction in the above mentioned German metropolis.

I must refrain from giving an account of Col. Waring's work, or of the increased attention now being paid to the hygienic value of asphalt pavement, results of which may be seen throughout a large district on the lower east side of New

<sup>1</sup> For a good summary of what has been done in the way of sanitation all over the country, see monograph by Samuel W. Abbot on public hygiene in the United States, prepared for the Paris exposition.

For city art societies, etc., see *village improvement*, below.

York as well as in other cities.<sup>1</sup> The good work for clean streets on the part of such organizations as the civic clubs of Philadelphia and Hartford, the civic federation of Chicago, the merchants' association of San Francisco, and other similar organizations I can only mention in passing. The organization of children for street cleaning by Col. Waring in New York and by others in Chicago, is an interesting feature of the crusade.<sup>2</sup>

Measures to control the smoke nuisance have been adopted in St. Paul (February, 1887), in Springfield, Mass. (September 1, 1900), and in Washington (act approved February 2, 1899).

#### Civic Art.

The two classes of citizens who have shown the greatest signs of life are the doctors and, recently, the artists and architects. These latter have formed a number of associations like the municipal art society (1893) and the architectural league of New York. The former society has, among other things, given the city at its own expense Simmons's beautiful paintings in the criminal courts building, and has secured competitive designs for artistic street lamps, public flag poles, park benches, drinking fountains, etc. Its motto is "To make us love our city, we must make our city lovely." Its work is modeled somewhat on that of the national Belgian society.<sup>3</sup>

In some cities there are organizations specially for tree-planting.<sup>4</sup> In some instances, on the other hand, a sort of philanthropic trust has been formed which represents good citizenship on many sides, the artistic and sanitary as well as others, of which the civic club of Philadelphia is the most typical, and the merchant's association of San Francisco is a prominent instance of a somewhat different sort. The former is carried on entirely by women, the latter by men.

An interesting development is that of local or district improvement societies in cities. I do not know of these outside of Boston, where we have several, one of which is now being got into working order by the South End house college settlement.

#### Women the best Workers.

In all these lines of work, in the city as well as in the country, women have been the most prominent workers. In Boston, for instance, we owe about half of what now makes our city interesting, namely, the preservation of the Old South church, the preservation of the Bulfinch front to the state house, the preservation of the beauty of Copley square, to the energy and public spirit, and the instinct for what makes a city worth

<sup>1</sup> See *Bulletin of Department of Labor*, September, 1900, table viii, on city pavements etc.

<sup>2</sup> See *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1899, pp. 774-5, and *Municipal Affairs*, supplement, June, 1898; compare *Forum*, March, 1895, p. 102.

<sup>3</sup> See *Municipal Affairs*, March, 1898, p. 14. See the rest of this number on municipal art. For a good account of what is being done all over the country in this line see article by Charles M. Robinson, *Atlantic Monthly*, June, 1899, pp. 771 and following.

<sup>4</sup> Same, p. 777.

living in, of two women. Indeed, the controlling factor in the present situation of the city housekeeping problem is the entrance of women into it. A woman has a feeling about dirt which men only pretend to have. The reaction which the sight of dirty streets produces in her, when once she has come to look upon the matter as being within her sphere, is something of which every head of a family has learned to stand in awe. She has, in such cases, a directness of method, a scorn for obstacles or excuses, an absence of any sense of humor as applying to the situation, that is very difficult to stand up against. She does not get over it as a man does, and she cares nothing for political affiliations or official proprieties. There is no divinity that effectively hedges the responsible boss or heeler when once she has got started. This is no guess or statement drawn from general principles, but a conclusion forced by a consideration of the facts.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>2</sup> Village Improvement.

"More than one hundred years ago" United States Senator James Hillhouse, of New Haven, organized "the public green association" and raised \$1,500 for grading the green and planting elms. That is the way in which a beginning is usually made, with some definite and visible work of local improvement. "The momentum given by successfully doing one

task is great. . . . The founders of such an association, therefore, knowing the local conservatism, should propose to themselves the accomplishment at first of only 'open, gross, and palpable' improvements, and then wait for the community to catch up with them."<sup>3</sup> But once started, there is hardly anything for the public benefit that such associations may not and do not accomplish. "Their aims, varying, of course, with local needs, include municipal reform, sanitary improvements, — especially as to water supply and sewerage and disposal of waste, — the improvement of roads, of sidewalks, of parks, of school yards, and other public grounds, — especially grounds around railway stations, — providing drinking tanks and fountains, organizing free town libraries, and removing nuisances and front fences. They are the rural counterparts of the urban boards of trade, the organization of those who would really serve the town, with no thought of loaves and fishes."<sup>4</sup>

To the above first recorded village improvement society one man was moved to contribute five gallons of rum, and from that day to this what I have said about the support given to libraries applies to a considerable degree to the work of these organizations; from the millionaire, often a poor boy of the village who has

<sup>1</sup> For a good account of how a political magnate—in New York, too—went into a fight in such a case like a lion and came out of it like a shorn lamb, and for other data, see *Municipal Affairs*, September, 1898, pp. 439 and following.

<sup>2</sup> See article in *Forum*, March, 1895, by B. G. Northup, p. 95.

<sup>3</sup> Same, p. 104.

<sup>4</sup> Same, p. 104.

made his money in some other place, to the school children of the present day, all classes have contributed.

Indeed, one of the greatest benefits, probably the greatest benefit, that such organizations confer upon the communities in which they spring up is through the development of a local civic patriotism which includes all classes and embraces all faiths, uniting the people in a truly public and, therefore, truly moralizing and edifying purpose. The germ of a social will, which exists in every man, is through them furnished with appropriate and effective means of expression, and is thereby cultivated into greater vigor and into greater control of the people's daily life. This is not theory, but a condensed record of actual experience. It is a part of the benefit conferred that party and sectarian jealousy has been found to wither and shrivel up in the presence of the higher and purer spirit.<sup>1</sup>

The first of these organizations to be incorporated was the Laurel hill association of Stockbridge, organized by Miss Mary Hopkins in 1853. As one goes west in Massachusetts to the valleys of the Connecticut and the Housatonic, one comes more and more to towns laid out upon the beautiful and ample plan which leaves a wide green with a row of elm trees, sometimes even with two rows, upon each side of the village street. One of the most charming of the towns so laid out is

Stockbridge, in the Housatonic valley, and it was to the improvement of this main street, its most characteristic feature, that this first work of an incorporated village society in America was directed. In the first year \$1,396 was spent for that purpose.

Of the other achievements of the Stockbridge society, its bringing about the creation of the ice glen park, and the rest, I can not speak; but one matter deserves special mention, namely, the attention given by it to the improvement of the railroad station and the grounds about it. Nothing, I think, gives either the visitor or the resident a more homesick and discouraged feeling than landing at the old-fashioned squalid and hideous railroad station, fashioned in the image of a cheap bath-house and surrounded by a wilderness of loose gravel; and it has been this feature that many of our village improvement societies have selected as an important point of attack.<sup>2</sup>

The Stockbridge society has offered prizes for tree-planting and tree-nurture, condition of sidewalks, and beauty of private grounds, and prize-giving is a common method with these societies. The society at Springfield, Mass., encourages window gardening in winter by the free distribution of thousands of imported bulbs and by prizes for the best results. A large floating bath-house was the first achievement of this society.

<sup>1</sup> Same, p. 104.

<sup>2</sup> For instance, see same, p. 97.



The bill-board and poster disease has in many cases yielded to the healing hand of these organizations, and their activities have included much work of an historical nature, such as the preservation of relics and landmarks, and merge, at this point, into the work of historical societies, of "sons and daughters" of various political events, and of the public libraries.

Massachusetts has more of these societies than any other state, but those in the western and middle states of the same latitude are many and vigorous.

"If the executive committee numbers fifteen, I advise that eight should be women. There is a growing number of such societies comprised (*sic*) entirely of women, to which men are admitted as honorary members. Women succeed better in getting money and in securing the co-operation of all classes."<sup>1</sup>

Among the many interesting features of Deerfield, Mass., are two which may be classed as novel manifestations of the village improvement idea. Deerfield is one of the beautiful valley towns of western Massachusetts, but is even more quaint and picturesque than any of the others that I know. It is a sister town to that historic spot where a venerable champion,—supposed to have been one of the Cromwellian regicides,—appeared and

turned the tide of an Indian attack. Like the other settlements which pushed their way up the Connecticut valley in the seventeenth century, it has a picturesque and interesting history; and it has a local charm and a local flavor of its own pervading its later as well as earlier life.<sup>2</sup>

One of the features to which I allude is the "village room" (incorporated), a memorial to a beloved postmistress, consisting of a low building which contains one large room and a kitchen and coat-room, and serves as a general meeting place for business and social purposes. It has been used, in the two years of its existence, nearly one hundred and fifty times for dances, clubs (women's, baseball, and rural), lend-a-hand meetings, church meetings, etc. The fee for using it is thirty cents. The club also has a circulating library of about four hundred books, and is open one afternoon and evening every week. It is hoped that it will prove "a more attractive lounging place than the village tavern."<sup>3</sup>

In the village room, one sees, I think, a happy recognition of the fact that the spiritual life of a community, as of an individual, requires outward and visible manifestations for its development. With it should be compared the "social settlements" and the club buildings provided by

<sup>1</sup> *Forum*, March, 1895, p. 104.

<sup>2</sup> See *Springfield Republican*, September 11, 1899.

<sup>3</sup> Information from Miss Emma L. Coleman, originator and treasurer. See also beautifully illustrated article in *Harper's Bazaar*, September 16, 1899.

so many of our manufacturers for their employes or for the citizens of their town.<sup>1</sup> The village room seems to me to stand at the head of the list of such enterprises because of the spontaneous manner of its origin and maintenance.

Applied  
Ruskin.

The other Deerfield institution that I have alluded to is what I may describe as a group of artistic household industries which have sprung up there. The most prominent of these is the already famous "blue and white needle work." The work is done mostly by the farmers' wives and is a revival of a style of embroidery practiced in New England by the women of the colonial and revolutionary periods. It follows the beautiful old designs,<sup>2</sup> of which examples were to be found preserved as family heirlooms, collected for several years previous to the starting of the industry by two ladies, Miss Margaret C. Whiting, and Miss Ellen Miller, both of whom had had a regular artistic training, and who have supplied the initiative and management, and done the designing of the enterprise. The society received its first order in August, 1896, and it has sold annually since that time about \$1,500 worth of its productions. In fixing a price, the labor is rated at twenty cents an hour for skilled workers, the money being

divided between the designers, the workers, and a fund to cover general expenses and cost of materials. The number employed varies from five to twenty-five, according to the season of the year. Other industries of the group are rug-making, metal work, and artistic photography.<sup>3</sup>

The impulse which has found expression in these industries has been not an economic, but an artistic impulse; they are—I do not speak it profanely—a manifestation of the true sporting spirit which finds the value of the deed in the satisfaction of doing it, not in ulterior results. It is true that the bringing of even \$1,500 a year into a farming community dependent upon the vagaries of the tobacco crop is a not unimportant item. Nevertheless, the great contribution which these occupations were intended by those who started them to make, and which they do make, to the lives of the women who carry them on is not in the money which they bring, but in the self-expression which they afford.

It is a truth that we need to recognize more than we do that the artisan can find in such work as this, within the limits of the design furnished, scope for the expression of character. "The leaders find that if excellence is called for for its own sake a response is sure to follow from all concerned in the production from all concerned in the production."

<sup>1</sup> See "a dividend to labor," N. P. Gilman, pp. 206 and following.

<sup>2</sup> See a sympathetic account of some of these designs traced back to Keturah Baldwin of Dorset, Vt., and to Sarah Snell of Salem, "fifth from John Alden and grandmother of Wm. Cullen Bryant," in the *House Beautiful*, April, 1898.

<sup>3</sup> See *Harper's Bazaar* September 16, 1899.

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Another example of the revival of village industries is the rug-making of which the designing and organizing is done by Miss Helen R. Albee of Pequaket, N. H. The same artistic spirit is visible in these instances that has cropped out so delightfully at the Roycrofters' shop in East Aurora, N. Y.

These Deerfield activities ought not, perhaps, to be classed as philanthropy, because philanthropy so successful as that is not philanthropy, but rises into a higher sphere, that of citizenship. I could not, however, refrain from mentioning them, because of the lesson they teach of what can be done for a country community. We do very little toward making country life such as we ourselves could be induced, by any consideration, to endure. A little kindling of social warmth, a touch of art—the wings of the muse heard among the elms of the village street—may make again of the country town the sort of place that Keene, Northampton, and Concord were in the old days before the rush of wealth and culture to the cities had had its full effect.

The most thorough work  
 Model  
 Manufacturing which has been done in  
 Villages. making the town or city  
 a suitable site for the home

has been in the cases where manufacturers have undertaken to improve the conditions under which their employes live.<sup>1</sup> I will take as a type the work of the national cash register company, of Dayton, Ohio.<sup>2</sup> Much of what has been done goes beyond the matter of providing a proper site for the home. It seems better, however, in this case to follow the dramatic rather than the scientific classification and to describe what is done at such places as Dayton all in one place.

The company employs  
 Dayton. 1,500 people besides some three hundred salesmen. Six years ago it is said to have been losing \$1,000 a day, there were frequent strikes, and the factory had been set on fire three times. Now there are sometimes 4,000 applications for employment on file, there is the best of feeling on the part of employes, and the company is making good profits. The secret of the change is said by the owners to consist in the one word, "sympathy," shown in the ways which I shall try to indicate.

The housing part of the work has not included the owning or building of any houses for the working people, but has consisted entirely in giving prizes (\$250 a year) for the best-kept front yards and back yards, the prettiest window boxes, the most tasteful planting of vines, and the like. The results, as may be

<sup>1</sup> On this whole subject see "industrial betterment," by Wm. H. Tolman (no index); "a dividend to labor," by N. P. Gilman, pp. 206 and following; eighth special report of United States commissioner of labor, 1895, pp. 321-36; *Municipal Affairs*, March, 1899, pp. 145 and following; *Bulletin of Department of Labor*, November, 1900. Mr. Tolman's book is arranged by subjects, the rest by firms.

<sup>2</sup> Many companies have done more. This instance is fairly typical of recent developments.

seen in the photographs published by the company, have been most remarkable, considering the means of those who produced them. The company has set an example by making its own buildings and surroundings beautiful, employing Mr. J. C. Olmstead to advise in the matter. Lawns have been laid out and flowers planted about the factory, windows have been enlarged, and a uniform color, pleasant to the eye, has been adopted inside the building. The junk and scrap have been hidden from sight; even telegraph poles are painted an invisible green and surrounded by wire netting on which vines are trained.

An upstairs room has been painted and fitted up as a dining room, with pretty table cloths and china, rugs, vines, palms, and a piano, bought by the young women. In this room lunch, consisting of tea and coffee and soup, is served every day at the company's expense. The girls take turns in waiting on the table and pay one cent a day for certain extras. Besides this lunch the company has provided, toward the physical well-being of its employes, free medicine when needed, a "stable" where 500 bicycles are put up, bathrooms for men and women, in which they can have one bath in winter and two in summer every week,—occupying for each bath twenty minutes of the company's time,—and as many more baths as they choose in their own time,<sup>1</sup> has reduced the hours to nine and a half for men and eight for women on the pay formerly received for ten hours,—as one result

of which provision the women go to work an hour later, and return a quarter of an hour earlier, than the men, thus avoiding crowds in the street cars; and has established two recesses of ten minutes each, a part of which time is used in winter for calisthenics. It has provided the women with elevators instead of stairs, and with comfortable chairs with adjustable foot-stools, and has fitted up for them a cozy "rest-room" to be used in case of sickness.

In the way of direct education, the company provides a library containing many valuable books on science and mechanics as well as general literature, leading magazines and periodicals, and a comfortable reading-room. This is a branch of the regular Dayton free public library and is accessible to all residents of the community. Books travel through the factory at meal time in a sort of hand-car. Two large halls have been provided, one at the factory and one in the centre of the city. Lectures are frequently given by noted lecturers and talks and entertainments of various kinds. There is a complete photograph gallery, and an artist is constantly employed in preparing colored lantern slides, of which there are about 6,000, on all kinds of subjects. There is a "house of usefulness," presided over by a deaconess, which operates as a sort of social settlement, and is, besides, a model cottage, being such as the working people can provide for themselves and serving as an object lesson of how to make such a place pretty and attractive.

In the way of teaching the chil-

<sup>1</sup> Compare "a dividend to labor," pp. 263, 266 etc. and "industrial betterment," pp. 23-7.

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dren, there are boys' clubs, a boys' brigade of two companies, a girls' literary and social club, an industrial school for teaching sewing and millinery, cooking schools, a dancing class, a young housekeepers' class, a choral society, a young peoples' society, "and many other similar organizations," including a Sunday-school which publishes a paper. "A large room in the building is used during the mornings for the 'N. C. R.' kindergarten,<sup>1</sup> one of the best in the community." There are too pupils, four teachers are employed, and in summer the work is carried on on the lawn. It is free to outsiders as well as to children of the operatives.

A significant educational enterprise is the laying out of about two acres in patches of ten by one hundred and fifty feet, where forty boys, under the direction of the company's gardener, carry on vegetable gardening, stimulated by \$50 a year in prizes.

**The Main Idea.**

To me the most interesting and important attribute of the whole plan is the apparent attitude of the manufacturers towards their employes as fellow-workers. Instead of treating them simply as persons who are paid to do a certain thing, from whom any suggestion or opinion as to the general conduct of the business would be an impertinence, the company seems to have done everything in its power to make the employes feel that the work is their own work, that what the factory accomplishes is their own accomplishment. The

means through which this attitude on the part of the employers is shown are as follows:

"There is no superintendent, the control being by committees, both in office and factory. These are chosen from among the officers and employes. The fullest information is given to all regarding the company's business. Meetings of employes are frequently held for discussion of business questions; conventions of salesmen and factory people are held annually, and are always events for the entire city, including great gatherings, processions, fireworks, and fullest instruction. The printing press is constantly used. The *N. C. R.* is a magazine which twice a month gives in the frankest manner important information regarding the business. The *South Park News*, *Pleasant Sunday Afternoons at the N. C. R. Factory*, and other occasional publications add to this information.<sup>2</sup> When distinguished visitors spend a day at the factory, flags are displayed on the buildings, and bulletins are posted telling who the guests are. All these things bring about enthusiastic loyalty and interest.

"In every department is located an autographic register with a card above it, inviting complaints and suggestions. These are gathered each day by the factory committee's secretary and referred to the proper persons for action. The company offers prizes aggregating over \$1,000 annually for the best suggestions. These are assigned twice every year, and are given on each occasion for the best fifty sugges-

<sup>1</sup> For some other instances of kindergartens see "a dividend to labor," pp. 214, 250.

<sup>2</sup> Other similar publications, "industrial betterment," pp. 27-9.

tions. These suggestions cover anything connected with the business, whether in the manufacturing, the recording, or the selling departments. Other prizes are also offered to the salesmen of the company who show the best results each month. This plan has gone far toward making the men and women alike loyal, enthusiastic, and self-reliant. During the year 1897, over four thousand suggestions were received, of which 1,100 were considered of sufficient value to be adopted by the company.<sup>1</sup>

There are several kinds of prizes, including "monitor boards," a banner which travels around to the different divisions, lighting on the one which has made the best record for the month, and a day's excursion for the division making the best record for the year.

The employés at Dayton have themselves organized many clubs and societies, including a women's club, a men's club, and a relief association. Their response to the æsthetic efforts of the company has been effectively illustrated by their insistence that certain hideous sheds and bill-boards facing one of the public streets should be removed, and by their effective protest against certain vandalisms on the part of the park department.

The company spends in the manner indicated about three per cent of the amount of its pay roll, or about \$30,000 a year.<sup>2</sup>

**Educational  
Tendency.**

The provision of opportunity for the expression and development of the sense of unity of the worker with

the factory is a matter of cardinal importance. When manufacturing industry ceased to be so carried on that the work of the individual artisan was an expression of his own mind and character there went out of the world an educational factor of enormous value, a factor which, in the same form, is not likely to reappear. The only way in which reparation for this loss can be made to the worker in the modern factory is by making him a sharer in the larger personality of the factory itself, the whole by which the article is in truth produced. When the worker shall have come to feel a pride in the achievements of his company and in what its name has come to stand for in the markets of the world—when a sense of loyalty, of fellowship, and of co-operation toward a worthy end shall find expression in his daily work—he will have received in the place of the artistic pride of the hand-worker something which may yet prove to be nearly or quite its equivalent.

The nearest relation which the worker can bear in the literal and legal sense to the personality of the corporation is by owning stock, and some companies have encouraged such ownership.<sup>3</sup> Another way of making him share, at least in its success, is through the various schemes of profit-sharing, of which

<sup>1</sup> Other instances of prizes for suggestions in "a dividend to labor," pp. 268, 293-4.

<sup>2</sup> The above is taken chiefly from an article by Mr. John H. Patterson in the *REVIEW*, December, 1898, pp. 473 and following. See also authorities cited at beginning of this section.

<sup>3</sup> See "a dividend to labor," pp. 22, 209, 269, 271.

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Mr. Gilman has written so well.<sup>1</sup> Another important way is through boards of conciliation, especially those which meet at regular intervals.<sup>2</sup>

But these methods do not seem to me to be so important as provisions such as we have noted as being made at Dayton for making the worker a true sharer in the work. A slice of the spoils has its advantages, morally as well as physically, but it is sharing, not merely in the spoils or in the labor, but in the excitement and passion of the chase, that gives life and illumination to the daily task.

So skilful have been the applications of a truly educational idea by the manufacturers of Dayton that it seems an appropriate conclusion when one reads at the end of a long account of what they have done, a statement which, coming without such introduction, would have sounded somewhat startling, namely, that one of the rules adopted and announced is that after the year 1915 no application for employment will be considered from any one who has not attended a kindergarten.

It is interesting to note, in this connection, that Robert Owen, in 1816, that is to say, during his early period as the great philanthropic manufacturer, opened his "institu-

tion for the formation of character," being the first infant school in Great Britain, among the exercises of which school were songs, dances, and nature-study carried on by summer excursions. No punishments were allowed in Robert Owen's school, and the children were instructed "by the object method,—by means of things themselves or of models or paintings,—and by familiar conversations" and were kept as much as possible in the open air.<sup>3</sup>

#### Pullman Compared.

The importance of the application of sound educational principles to dealings with workingmen is well brought out by comparing what has been done at Dayton with the experience of the great and famous work at Pullman (begun May, 1880).<sup>4</sup> The fundamental difference between the two cases is that whereas at Pullman the aim seems to have been to impress the ideas of the owners upon the employés, the aim of the Dayton people has been to bring out the ideas and the character that is in the employés themselves.

Pullman is an instructive instance of the danger of yielding too far to the instinct which everywhere characterizes the born administrator, that, namely, of enforcing certain outward acts and observances, forget-

<sup>1</sup> Same, pp. 310, 323, 324, and following, and "profit sharing," N. P. Gilman.

<sup>2</sup> Mrs. C. R. Lowell, "industrial arbitration and conciliation."

<sup>3</sup> "A dividend to labor," pp. 52-3.

<sup>4</sup> See, for instance the account of the Pullman experiment in the eighth special report of the commissioner of labor, 1895, pp. 328-33; "a dividend to labor," pp. 239-44; sixteenth annual report of the Massachusetts bureau of labor statistics, August, 1895, part I. The last named is the best and fullest account.

ting that the act is valuable only so far as it expresses the spirit within. The accounts of Pullman leave the impression that everything was done that a wise despotism, earnestly desirous of benefiting its subjects, could devise. It appears to have been, physically, a miracle of wise planning and capable administration. The sanitary arrangements were such that "the death rate for the first three years was less than one-third the average for American cities, and has continued to be very low." Nearly a million dollars were spent on the drainage alone. There was a model market, theatre, library, hotel, a gymnasium, amphitheatre for games, a baseball ground, streets "of a pre-eminently neat and attractive appearance," laid out by landscape architects, houses planned by the best architects, a fine school-house, a fire department run by the company, and a church built by them. The good results were not alone of the physical sort, as indicated by the death rate; there was no pauperism, and but fifteen arrests among 8,500 inhabitants in two years.

If Thomas Carlisle, Kipling, and the other believers in the duty of the strong and the wise to utterly control and manage the weak and foolish are right, then Pullman was as near heaven as we can get on this earth. The fact that, heaven or no heaven, it was not popular with the employés is, I think, one more ex-

ample of the fact that man can not live by bread alone, or even by drainage, theatres, and libraries supplied by an alien will, and that there are some merits in democracy which those who judge government purely by its outward results have not learned, as yet, to realize. The Pullmans have been charged with selfishness. The charge seems to me to be refuted by the facts; but the question of their motives is unimportant. The Dayton people say that what they do is done because it pays, and I imagine that that motive can not be absent in such cases. The trouble at Pullman was not with motives, but with their theory of what does and what does not constitute liberty and good government.

**Other  
Instances.**

Among the means frequently employed for cultivating the character and independence of employés are encouragements given to saving and insurance.<sup>1</sup> Prominent instances of the latter are the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy and the Baltimore and Ohio railroads. It is said that one-seventh of the railroad employés of the country are members of the insurance departments.<sup>2</sup>

A great deal is done in a large number of establishments for the direct education of the employés. Perhaps the most notable instances are the various libraries provided by Mr. Carnegie, each one of which is

<sup>1</sup> See "a dividend to labor," pp. 22-3, 215-6 (Carnegie), etc.

<sup>2</sup> Same, p. 280.

a vast institution in itself. The one at Braddock cost \$300,000 to build and equip and receives \$10,000 a year from Mr. Carnegie, besides frequent gifts. It includes a club and provides lectures, classes in practical study, talks and concerts, and an annual exhibition of paintings; it sends out traveling libraries to the schools in outlying districts, and publishes a monthly journal.<sup>1</sup>

The Baltimore and Ohio railroad furnishes traveling libraries, and the different railroads of the country have supplied some twenty-one homes or club houses for the young men's christian association, containing reading rooms, libraries, halls, class-rooms, baths, gymnasiums, etc., and support many other centres of the association. "Over sixty railroad companies interested are appropriating some \$160,000 a year for the support of this work."<sup>2</sup>

We find at Briar Cliff manor farm (where the cows are provided with a change of scene and no loud talking is allowed in the stable), a trade school, a church, and a lodging-house with a recreation room, provided by the proprietor.<sup>3</sup>

**The Citizen  
Idea.**

An important point noted by Mr. Gilman is that it is better that what the employer provides should be done for the town than that it should be limited to his own workmen. For

then it is put fairly and frankly, both as to the giver and as to the recipient, on the ground of good citizenship, and thus is the more effectually removed from the suspicion and taint of patronage. American companies have, in a large number of instances, adopted this method.<sup>4</sup>

The Drapers of Hopedale, Mass., have, among other things, provided six acres for a recreation ground, a church, a town hall and library, and a high-school building.<sup>5</sup> The Ludlow manufacturing company of Ludlow, Mass., has built a school and a memorial hall, and the Peace Dale manufacturing company of Peace Dale, R. I., beginning as far back as 1854, organized a number of institutions for Peace Dale as a whole, the use of which is in no way confined to the factory people. There is, besides the educational advantage which I have noted, a certain amount of business sense in this plan. The company in a small manufacturing town or village realizes the fact that it is practically the only tax-payer, that the people are, sooner or later, going to vote the town a library or town hall at the company's expense, and that the company might as well take the bull by the horns, head off the political jobber, and secure to the community the greatest return for its money, by making the offer itself.

<sup>1</sup> "A dividend to labor," pp. 216-7. A great deal is done for public schools by the Cheney brothers, at South Manchester, Conn. Same, p. 267.

<sup>2</sup> "A dividend to labor," p. 280.

<sup>3</sup> "Industrial betterment," pp. 48-9, and elsewhere.

<sup>4</sup> See, for instance, "a dividend to labor," pp. 237, 247, etc.

<sup>5</sup> "Industrial betterment," pp. 74-6.

One company I know of, for instance, builds and takes care of all the streets, partly at least from this motive.

**Aesthetic  
Aims.**

The extent to which recognition is being given in this country to the fact that hideous surroundings are not a necessary condition of factory life and work, and that beautiful surroundings go far to make life worth living, is a notable feature of the movement for better working conditions at the present time, as shown in the frequent employment of landscape architects in the laying out of grounds about the factories and of the streets where operatives' houses are built, in the planting of vines and flowers, in the disappearance of the white telegraph pole, in curtains at windows, and (appealing to another sense) in the advent of the piano.<sup>1</sup>

The choral society of Peace Dale, organized ten years ago and deficit paid by the Peace Dale manufacturing company, gives three concerts a year, including such works as "Elijah," Rossini's "Stabat Mater," etc.<sup>2</sup>

The most idyllic conditions found in any factory town in the United States seem to be those reached by

the Cheney brothers on their thousand acres of land in South Manchester, Conn., where 2,500 employes are housed and employed in their silk mills.<sup>3</sup>

**A Caution.**

One further remark seems necessary, namely, that when the whole story has been told, so far as it can be set down in black and white, the most important part has still been left out. No amount of machinery or visible appliances are a substitute for the "humane touch;" and the manufacturer who has done the least that appears in the catalogue may yet be among those who have done the most for the real advance and happiness of their employes.

In some instances, like those of the Cheney, of the Crane family of Dalton, Mass., of the Whitins of Whitinsville, and of the Drapers at Hopedale, "prosperity sharing" of the sort I have been describing dates back to the middle of the century or before; but in most cases the beginning, often the beginning of the company itself, goes back twenty years or less. The movement, like others of the sort, gains volume in a geometric ratio, and many of its manifestations are very recent.

<sup>1</sup> "A dividend to labor," pp. 252, 266, etc.

<sup>2</sup> "Industrial betterment," p. 70.

<sup>3</sup> For a pleasing account, see "a dividend to labor," pp. 254-6. Another striking instance is that of the Willimantic thread company, same, p. 261.

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Discusses in detail the principles of settlement work.

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*The Problem of Municipal Government.* (James H. Batten.)

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*Paths of Hope for the Negro: practical suggestions by a Southerner.* (Jerome Dowd.)

Municipalities should keep clean the streets and alleys inhabited by negroes. Reform is necessary in their religion and education,—the character as well as the scope of the latter,—taking into account the fact that they can take in the concrete, but not the abstract. The negro vote should be eliminated. Advocates an educational test for both blacks and whites.

*What More Than Wages.* (W. H. Tolman.)

What is done by some large manufacturers, in this country and in England, to better the condition of their employes, especially with reference to housing and opportunities to get at the land.

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"The aristocracy;" "the submerged."

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The work done, especially abroad, in introducing these as factors in the school system.

II. *Swimming Baths.* (Jane A. Stewart.)

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*The Social Future of England.* (William Clarke.)

The industrial deterioration, the tendency toward town life, the growth of a servant class, the drink, housing, and population problems demonstrate a marked decline in the democratic movement and a corresponding growth of bureaucracy, and are not temporary phenomena, but symptoms of permanent change.

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The children's room, information desk, industrial collection, trade catalogs, etc., of the Providence library.

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Experiments and results in Cleveland, Pittsburgh, and Dayton.